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ABSTRACT

This collection of six papers on planning for effective foreign language education in the 1980s includes the following titles: (1) "Imperatives for the Eighties," by June K. Phillips; (2) "Profiles and Perspectives," by Pamela J. Myers; (3) "Second Language Experiences for Everyone," by Carol A. Herron; (4) "Special Curricula for Special Needs," by Barbara Elling; (5) "Realizing the Potential, Broadening the Base," by Alan Galt; and (6) "Acting on the Realities in Second-Language Education," by Maureen T. Lapan. (JB)

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The New Imperative:

Expanding the Horizons of Foreign Language Education

Edited by June K. Phillips

In conjunction with the American Council
on the Teaching of
Foreign
Languages

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Foreword

This volume is the first in a new format developed for the ACTFL Foreign Language Education Series. Publication of the regular, comprehensive volume will continue on an alternate year basis; the interim years will see a smaller text dealing in more depth with a topic of immediate interest to the profession. In this fashion, ACTFL hopes to meet the theoretical and practical, research and classroom needs of the foreign language education profession. This initial volume is built upon the case for foreign language study that must be taken to the public in the immediate future. The theme and chapters were developed by the ACTFL Publications Committee, consisting of Dale Lange, Lynn Sandstedt, and Renate Schulz. In addition to their expertise, the editor appreciates the input of Jane Bourque, Helene Loew, and Alice Omaggio at various stages of the process. At ACTFL headquarters the guidance and help of C. Edward Scebold and Cathy Linder were always helpful and graciously offered, even during an exceptionally busy year. Last, but certainly not least, the clerical assistance of Connie Hurd at Indiana University of Pennsylvania was an important ingredient in the ultimate publication of the volume.

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1

Imperatives for the eighties

June K. Phillips
Indiana University of Pennsylvania

Wall Street Journal, 15 February 1978. –Language is the tool for learning anything, and there's no better way to sharpen it than to hone it on some tongue other than your own.

–Vermont Royster

New York Times, 9 January 1979. –The United States is alone among industrial nations in its neglect of foreign-language study . . . Unless there is a rapid reversal of the trend . . . the United States will be severely hampered in fulfilling its international obligations.

–Fred M. Hechinger

New York Times, 6 March 1979. –Most Americans find it socially acceptable, for example, to admit that they don't read poetry and don't speak a foreign language.

–Russell Baker

Pittsburgh Press, 10 April 1979. –We will never get far in gaining the confidence of other nations if our spokesmen don't know the words to ask for confidence in.

–James J. Kilpatrick

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June K. Phillips (Ph. D., The Ohio State University) is Professor of Foreign Languages at Indiana University of Pennsylvania where she teaches the methods course and supervises student teachers. She has taught French at the secondary and college levels, has conducted individualized classes, has developed learning packets and has given numerous workshops and presentations to teacher groups. She has written French-language readers *Petits contes sympathiques* and *Contes sympathiques* and her articles have appeared in *Foreign Language Annals* and in the ACTFL Foreign Language Education Series for which she served as editor of Volumes 9 and 10. She is currently a member of the Board of Directors of the Northeast Conference on the Teaching of Foreign Languages and the Executive Council of the Pennsylvania State Modern Language Association; her affiliations include ACTFL, APSCUF, and PSMLA.

> *Washington Post*, 24 April 1979. – To the catalogue of sins for which education is responsible add still another conspicuous failure. At the primary and secondary level the teaching of languages and instruction in the state of the world is so deficient that the rising generation is woefully ignorant of languages and the people who use those languages. On an increasingly interdependent planet, they are like players in a game of blindman's buff loaded with a nuclear potential.
>
> **–Marquis Childs**

And so the seventies end with a splash of editorials for more and better foreign language study. It is left to the eighties to generate newsworthy events about the effects and benefits that accrue to those who study foreign languages and cultures. The imperative for the profession is to convert the strong arguments for language study into successful programs that merit public support. If the momentum that is building now is to be maintained, the profession must be ready to act, to take up the editorial challenge, and to expand its goals so that foreign language experiences for all Americans can be a reality.

The present scene in foreign language education is often bleak. Enrollments, if not shrinking, are described euphemistically as "no longer showing an increase in the rate of decline." The lack of foreign language expertise in this country is evident in news items from international affairs to campus governments.

- Presidential interpreters chosen on the basis of conversational or ethnic origin but untrained in the specialized skill of the translator/interpreter.
- Political actions abroad that surprise our government because they occur under-the-eyes-of but out-of-the-ears-of supposed experts in the field.
- Student government candidates who see no inconsistency in campaigning for "more internship programs overseas" and "abolishment of the language requirement" at the same time.

The situation seems not to improve. To a public that resists recognizing that an oil crisis exists, the inadequacy of foreign language and cultures programs is far from a burning issue.

The year of the President's Commission

> To encourage the study of foreign languages and civilizations as an important means of expanding communication among peoples for their better acquaintance with the culture of each country, as well as for the strengthening of international cooperation; to this end to stimulate, within their competence, the further development and improvement of foreign language teaching and the diversification of choice of languages taught at various levels, paying due attention to the less widely-spread or studied languages . . . (Helsinki Agreement, 3)

In an effort to realize this country's commitment to the goals stated in the Helsinki Agreement, Jimmy Carter, at the urging of Representative Paul Simon of Illinois, appointed a President's Commission on Foreign Language and International Studies. Members of the commission were named in September of 1978 and were given the mandate to study how the decline in foreign languages and area studies might be reversed. The year has been spent in regional hearings open to public testimony and in commission meetings with speakers invited to address specific topics. Massive documentation has been compiled dealing with problems, causes, resolutions, and recommendations. The final report of the commission is due to the President in September 1979.

A turning point is at hand, and a choice must be made by supporters and practitioners of foreign language study either to continue to commiserate among themselves over the neglect or to mobilize and to act. The existence of the President's Commission provided a vehicle for bringing the issue to the public, and while publicity for the commission's work was minimal, the testimony did produce some editorial and news reporting. Another imperative was thus identified; more work must be done to see that the final report attracts more attention. If that commission report gains notice and leads to supportive legislation, then a new day for foreign language study is a real possibility. If the report is shelved, as is the fate of numerous such documents, then the profession must be prepared to utilize the plans and projects conceived during this year to that an impact is still made for a future for foreign language study.

Steps taken

Contingency plans for dealing with the "best" and "worst" scenarios to arise from the commission's report have been prepared. The year-long hearings were therapeutic for those who participated in them by providing a major forum in which the real issues could be identified and probed. Teachers, parents, school administrators, students, business leaders, and anyone with a position for, against, or undecided used the commission to air their views. Behind the scenes people were forced to question their beliefs and to reflect upon the actions, reactions, or inactions over the last decade that have led to this state of decline in the field. At a minimum this was a healthy exercise. Jogging sure beats running in place!

Regardless of the outcome, the political exercise that has occupied so much time for foreign language advocates has resulted in the setting of several priorities and imperatives for the eighties. First, a giant step toward professional unity was taken. Local, regional, and national organizations cooperated to further a cause greater than the domain of their geographic or linguistic constituency. A network was formed for the regional hearings in which tasks were assigned and carried out by the most effective branch. The Boston Hearing on May 4, 1979 exemplified this cooperation.

- National organizations, American Council on the Teaching of Foreign Languages (ACTFL), Modern Language Association (MLA), and Center for Applied Linguistic (CAL) continued to assume responsibilities for coordinating efforts and making contacts with the commission staff and for disseminating information to members and leaders throughout the states.
- The Northeast Conference on the Teaching of Foreign Languages sponsored a planning session, drew up position papers, and selected panelists for the hearing.
- State chapters of professional organizations and state education department representatives participated in planning sessions and presented positions from the floor.
- Local groups encouraged members to testify or show interest by their attendance at hearings; one imaginative district sent two students with a packet of written statements from classmates to address the commission.

It is imperative that this unity of purpose continue as the difficult work begins. Through a united effort all groups gain strength and the common goal is furthered; factionalism serves no useful end. As Bourque (1) has stated in her setting of the 1979 ACTFL Annual Meeting theme: "We have been accused of begin a divided profession. Some would have everyone speak a common language. Some would have us all join just one professional organization. Some would have us subscribe to a single theory or method or approach. Unification does not have to mean standardization. We can have "Unity in Diversity" (p. 164).

Another positive step resulted from probing the problems and laying bare the issues. While recent sessions of the ACTFL Annual Meeting have focused on exploring the issues—always a topic wherever foreign-language teachers gather—a comprehensive analysis was accomplished this year. Information was drawn from diverse geographical areas, educational strata (classroom teachers, supervisors), instructional levels, and target languages. As reports were compiled, the common threads emerged and a list of priorities was established. These should give direction to the efforts of the foreign language profession for the 1980s regardless of legislative impact.

It was encouraging to see a sense of responsibility grow as participants in planning groups discussed problems and solutions. Repeatedly, as tentative recommendations were being offered, individuals, forced to take stock, would suddenly realize, "Wait! That's not the government's job, that's mine as a teacher, or that's ours as members of this profession."

Resolutions and priorities

A closer look at three of the many position papers submitted to the President's Commission reveals the directions and imperative for the eighties. Each document shares the common goal of advancing the study of foreign languages and cultures, yet each evolves from a different consensus.

The *Resolutions on Language in American Education* (6) were an early effort at defining the philosophy and form that foreign language study should take in the future. General in its perspective, the statement does emphasize the goal of foreign languages for all Americans, and it has received widespread endorsement from many educational organizations (See Figure 1.)

Resolutions on Language in American Education

BELIEVING that all Americans should have the opportunity, either in school or college or as adult learners, to acquire competence in foreign languages and understanding of foreign cultures, we urge support for the following resolutions:

- The secondary schools of the United States must offer every student the opportunity to learn a widely used international language, in addition to English, by providing a full sequence of foreign language study. To develop existing language resources, the schools should offer students from non-English-speaking backgrounds the opportunity to study their home language.
- Students wishing to acquire full proficiency in languages and international studies should have access to district-wide or regional "magnet" schools that provide such instruction. These international high schools would be supported primarily by local funds, but federal funds should be made available for planning and development.
- Institutions of higher education have a special responsibility to provide instruction in less commonly taught languages and in area studies, in addition to the widely used languages. Existing federal programs must be expanded to provide effective support to institutions committed to offering instruction in languages important to the national interests of the United States.
- Institutions of higher education must ensure a supply of competent foreign language teachers to meet needs at all levels of education, and must assist in creating programs to upgrade the skills of experienced teachers. Federal funds should be made available to support this effort.
- International exchange and study-abroad programs should be strengthened and made more accessible in order to provide the experience of foreign study and residence to qualified students and researchers.
- National data on the acquisition of competence in foreign languages must be collected each year and made available to educators and the general public. The cost of developing appropriate measures of proficiency and of monitoring competence should be borne by the federal government.

Figure 1. Resolutions on Language in American Education

Specific suggestions for providing a second-language experience to all students are offered by Rivers (7). She proposes several curricular and language options for elementary through adult age learners. The range of programs or models is broad; it becomes the duty of local schools or colleges to choose those most likely to attract students into their foreign language classrooms. Rivers's alternatives include:

EARLY LANGUAGE LEARNING

- FLES programs in commonly taught languages
- FLES programs representative of ethnic concentrations in the area
- Two-way bilingual programs
- Latin courses
- Exploratory courses
- Immersion programs

ADOLESCENT LEARNING

- Intensive semester programs
- Language centers in international or magnet schools
- Immersion summer institutes
- Summer study abroad
- Youth summer job exchanges
- Student and teacher exchanges

ADULT LEARNING

- Public broadcasting (radio, TV) programs for learning and maintenance of languages
- Self-instructional materials in uncommonly taught languages

A curricular model, designed as a pyramid, has been proposed by Strasheim (8). Figure 2 illustrates how programs providing both diversity and continuity can be offered to students at any age and in various languages. While futuristic in concept, many of the building blocks are already in place. Foreign languages for everyone need not be pie in the sky; an audience is not being sought that cannot be accommodated. It will take an immense effort to convince the public that the rationale for such pervasive involvement is sound, and, most important it will take teachers who are willing to be retrained and to welcome all students into their courses. Thus, another imperative is the implementation of these resolutions. It is time to go beyond the taking stage, time to activate a curriculum containing a language experience for the 80 percent of the population that has shied away from enrolling. We have not ignored that group; indeed we have often given them a chance—a chance to fail in our classes. Rarely has a widespread program been developed in which they have a good chance of succeeding. The "Expanding Horizons" in the title of this volume cannot stop at a rationale stage. It must be converted to the setting of realistic, minimal learning outcomes if the benefits are to be maximum.

A second major document to come out of the commission hearings is more specific in its political basis. Compiled by ACTFL, MLA, and CAL and endorsed

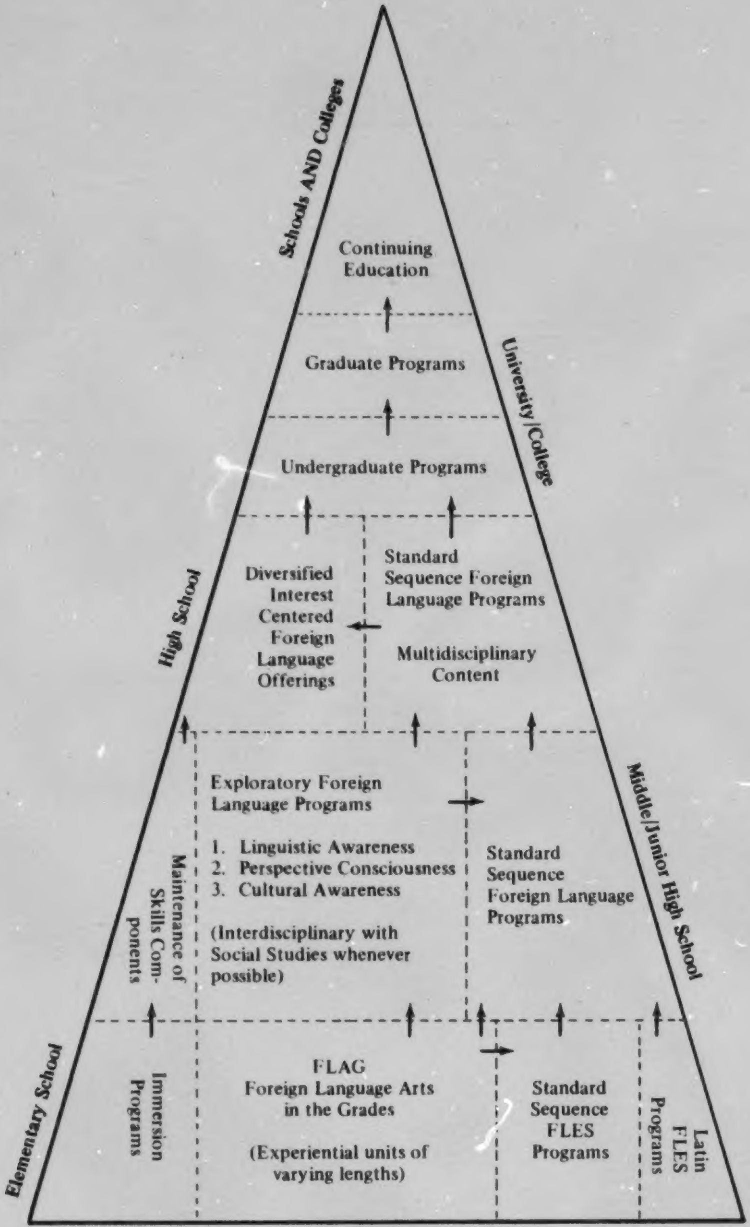
Schools AND Colleges
Continuing Education
Graduate Programs
University/College
Undergraduate Programs
High School
Diversified Interest Centered Foreign Language Offerings
Standard Sequence Foreign Language Programs
Multidisciplinary Content
Exploratory Foreign Language Programs
1. Linguistic Awareness
2. Perspective Consciousness
3. Cultural Awareness
(Interdisciplinary with Social Studies whenever possible)
Maintenance of Skills Components
Standard Sequence Foreign Language Programs
Middle/Junior High School
Elementary School
Immersion Programs
FLAG Foreign Language Arts in the Grades
(Experiential units of varying lengths)
Standard Sequence FLES Programs
Latin FLES Programs

Figure 2. Foreign Language Programs: Reaching Toward the Twenty-first Century (Strasheim, 8)

by the Joint National Committee for Languages, the *Priorities for Action* (4) outline legislative and professional recommendations. This document recognizes that the new imperatives are political ones. Government must begin to work for and with foreign languages, not in ignorance of us and we of it. For better or worse, education in this country is politically influenced at local, state, or federal levels. For too long, foreign language education has had no effective lobby or public interest group to speak out for it. Think of the relatively minor roles of fields such as vocational education, special education, even physical education (other than a few "star" sports) until the recent past when they attracted strong advocates to their cause. Legislative support in dollars and cents was poured into media campaigns to make the public aware that their children had a right to vocational programs, to special learning help, to physical fitness; do not these same children have a right to learn a language other than English? Seeking energetic support for our discipline will be a difficult task but one impossible not to pursue. As a colleague stated recently, "It is not that the public is *against* us, it is that they are not strong enough *for* us!" Indeed, apathy is harder to fight than antipathy.

The case for foreign language study today would seem to be more compelling than ever before as international issues impact increasingly on society. Yet the heyday of foreign language interest was in the sixties when NDEA moneys promoted programs, materials, and teacher training. As funding waned, so did the commitment of the schools and colleges in spite of growing global concerns. Money talks.

The priorities statement, therefore, details financial and legislative imperatives. The recommendations are summarized as follows:

New Legislation

Recommendation 1: Provision for Incentive Funding to Encourage and Improve the Study of Languages and Cultures

Recommendation 2: Creation of Model Programs

Recommendation 3: Creation of a National Assessment Programs for Foreign Language and Culture Study

Existing Legislation

Recommendation 4: Creation of a Monitoring Agency at the Federal Level

Recommendation 5: Funding of Language and Area Studies Centers, Support of Curriculum Development, and Establishment of a Teacher Inservice Program

Recommendation 6: Establishment of a High Level of Priority for Foreign Language and Culture Projects Funded by Other Existing Federal Agencies

Professional Priorities

Recommendation 7: Implementation of a National Public Awareness Program

Recommendation 8: Establishment of a Congressional Liaison Office in Washington, D.C.

Recommendation 9: Funding of an Interdisciplinary Effort for the Development of Global Education Curricula

Recommendation 10: Continuation of Inservice Teacher Preparation in Foreign Language and International Studies

Recommendation 11: Availability of Training in Foreign Languages and Cultures in Non-Academic Settings

Recommendation 12: Development of a Ten-Year Plan to Implement Curricula for Global Education, Teacher Inservice Continuing Preparation, and Language Learning in Non-Academic Settings

In addition, the Priorities for Action statement (4) outlines a process by which this joint effort by the government and the profession might be accomplished. It would consist of:

- Assessment of the current state of the profession in preparation for the development of a renewed effort in foreign language and culture study
- Setting of goals for foreign language and global education is different education environments: elementary and secondary schools, colleges, and adult education
- Development of curricula for foreign language and global education in varied educational environments
- Preparation of current teachers to teach the new curriculum
- Development of instrumentation for the assessment of learning and programs
- Program implementation
- Evaluation of foreign language and culture learning and program evaluation (p. 7).

The third statement exemplifies the interprofessional and interdisciplinary directions that may be the route into a decade—and even a century—of growth and success. Foreign language teachers can no longer expend all their energies on a narrow concept of content (i.e., language and literature), but they must take the broader view of language as communication and culture and link it to the issues of global education. To this end ACTFL and the National Council for the Social Studies jointly issued a set of recommendations to the President's Commission (5). The statement identifies four areas within the realm of precollegiate education in which these two professions might work cooperatively. The complete document details the recommendations and subsections that are highlighted here.

Recommendation 1: Creating Awareness and Building Involvement.

- Development of a national campaign to stimulate public awareness of the need for global literacy and foreign language skills for life in the twenty-first century
- Providing curriculum expertise at local, state, and federal levels
- Supporting state boards of education and state departments of education/public instruction in efforts to aid local districts and teachers in promoting global and foreign language education
- Expanding support for professional organizations that are actively working in global and foreign language education
- Fostering the discussion of global and foreign language education at major conferences (civic, parent, professional) at national, state, and local levels
- Encouraging the national media to advance the cause of global education

Recommendation 2: Research

- Surveys of existing programs in global and foreign language education focusing on the status of teacher preparation, existing curricula, available materials, and student enrollments
- Studies of learner outcomes, cognitive and attitudinal, in global and foreign language problems with special attention to proficiency or skill levels at each state of the sequence
- Interrelated and interdisciplinary research studies on: optimal ages for teaching various global skills and best sequencing; role of classroom climate and teacher as model in influencing learner outcomes; relation among attitudes, knowledge, skills, and learning activities; effectiveness of methods for motivating students to seek additional experiences with foreign languages and global education
- Conducting surveys and disseminating results of the impact of world events and transnational interactions on local communities of the effect of local actions on peoples and communities in other parts of the world
- Develop and disseminate results of case studies of successful global and foreign language studies programs in a variety of school and community settings
- Develop research projects that identify the benefits to the individual involved with an international travel/study or exchange opportunity; design models for maximizing those benefits.

Recommendation 3: Curriculum and Materials Development (K–12)

- Provide leadership on the federal level to enable local and state agencies and institutions to assume development, dissemination, and coordination efforts
- Encourage state departments of education to promote global education in all segments of the curriculum—with special attention to foreign languages and social studies

- Encourage commercial and local curriculum development through regional consortia of schools, universities, school curriculum centers, and/or teacher centers
- Identify agencies and institutions that can provide global and foreign language materials developed outside the United States for use in schools
- Provide for dissemination of information on existing global and foreign language education programs
- Inform teachers of monies available at state and local levels under existing acts and titles for materials and curriculum development
- Encourage preparation of bibliographies, acquisition of reference books, periodicals, monographs, and reports on global and foreign language education, including research results and listing of available opportunities for study
- Accreditation agencies of schools should reflect the increasing importance of foreign language and global education in their standards and programs
- Develop models for extending the benefits of international travel/study and exchange programs by using student, teacher, and administrative participants in curriculum planning in social studies and foreign languages.

Recommendation 4: Teacher Education

- Support for staff development in colleges and universities to maintain and retrain teachers in global perspective skills
- Development of teacher education programs with a global perspective for social studies and foreign language majors
- Funding of staff development programs for local and state school board members, superintendents, principals, and curriculum directors
- Support for inservice retraining opportunities for teachers
- Increased opportunities for international/intercultural experiences with job protection for teacher participants
- Teacher certification programs that include courses in global education for all teachers
- Teacher education accrediting agencies should reflect the increasing importance of foreign language and global education in their standards and programs

Americans: The reality versus the dream

> *Chronicle of Higher Education.* 2 July 1979. – Most Americans are monolingual . . . fewer than 25 percent can use a second language; more than half would like to.

This headline announced the results of a basic step taken by the President's Commission as it gathered data for its final report. A national telephone survey, conducted by the University of Michigan and analyzed by the Center for

Applied Linguistics, probed Americans' attitudes toward foreign language study (2). The data, while encouraging in its revelation of generally positive or widespread support of the "ideal" of foreign language study, underscores the problem of a populace in which less than ten percent have actually studied one long enough to acquire a usable knowledge—thus, the reality.

A sampling of the results:

- over 50 percent *wished* they could speak another language
- over 75 percent *believed* foreign languages should be offered in elementary schools; over 40 percent that they be required
- over 90 percent that foreign languages be offered in secondary schools and over 45 percent that they be required
- 38 percent that foreign language be an admission requirement and 39 percent a graduation requirement in higher education
- 84 percent of parents with children under 16 *encourage* them to study foreign languages; 73 percent *expect* that their children will have an opportunity to use them
- 45 percent of the respondents *would like* to study a foreign language in the future

Note the verbs. They designate the possible not the present. These numbers of people neither speak nor study foreign languages; the courses are neither offered nor required in the percentages cited. The step taken by the survey confirms the existence of a larger potential audience. The steps ahead are the difficult, the demanding ones of converting attitudes into actions.

Steps ahead: Expanding horizons

The banner under which the foreign language profession must rally for its march into the 1980s is that of public relations and the other PR's which comprise it—political responsibility, professional responsibility, and personal responsibility.

For a public relations effort to be successful, political muscle must be developed by the profession as a whole and by each of its advocates. Skills in playing the political game will need to be honed so that the issue of foreign language study is raised at local school board elections, with candidates for state offices, and with Congressional representatives. Imagine the surprise of the campaigner asked to state his or her views and intentions on the topic of foreign languages when advance preparation dealt only with the issues of abortion, busing, windfall profits, etc. Our task begins on the level of awareness, and we must go beyond letter-writing to active participation in the political forum.

Professional responsibility in the coming years will demand a financial commitment and an investment of time. Seed money has been given by ACTFL to launch a public awareness campaign and the Joint National Committee for Languages has provided funds to set up a liaison office in Washington, D.C.

These actions are only a beginning. Individual members of the profession will have to donate money to advance and support these works; the membership base of the organizations must be expanded by personal solicitation to colleagues; finally, one must be willing to pursue professional growth activities to improve teaching skills.

Personal responsibility is, of course, inherent in the political and professional mandates cited. Yet that personal dedication will be manifested on a deeper level as full responsibility is assumed for advancing the learner outcomes and human potential that have been attributed to foreign language study. It is time that we teach what we preach—the eighties will tolerate no less—that what happens in the classroom is what was promised, that as individuals we accept the cultural diversity we praise, that we represent the global perspective we espouse.

The purpose of this volume of the ACTFL Foreign Language Education Series is to provide the foreign language advocate with the arguments and rationale, descriptions of extant and future programs to broaden the audience, and a sampling of the attitudes held by today's public. The goal is to equip the teacher with the information necessary for political, professional, and personal engagement in the decade ahead.

Pamela Myers sets forth the realities, not as she imagines them, but as our public, students, parents, professional colleagues, and administrators express them. While the Michigan Study for the President's Commission presents statistics, the profiles gathered by Myers tell the stories, reveal the attitudes, and define the motivations with which foreign language educators must deal more effectively.

Carol Herron reviews the various cases for foreign language study by investigating their historical bases and the contemporary versions and relevant arguments that teachers can utilize with student and adult publics today. The rationale does not stop at theory; classroom activities that carry out the objectives and unanswered research questions are also posed. The reader should find here the background and promising approaches to use in waging his or her own battle with school systems or colleges.

Barbara Elling establishes the basis and development of a second language component in specialized education areas. For that segment of the population with special needs and specific goals in foreign language study, programs are described, realizable goals set forth, and the overriding considerations discussed. Elling updates and expands on career education, multicultural education, and adult education programs where a larger impact can be made by foreign language education.

Alan Galt looks to the immediate future to predict how we might broaden the base for our discipline. He proposes ways of dealing with the attitudes of monolingual population, redefining current programs, and using technology more effectively to teach foreign languages. In addition, Galt asks us to stretch our imagination to devise different organizational patterns and to pursue interdisciplinary approaches so that the future is not a repetition of the errors of the past.

Maureen Lapan concentrates on what the individual must do to bring about the political and professional and personal changes that must accompany any redirection foreign language instruction takes. She proposed a model for change in which the teacher's classroom role as communicator serves to convince the clientele of the value of second language study. She forces us to think of the ways in which we can make an impact on the school, the community, and the government to bring about desired changes.

As the year of the President's Commission draws to an end and the final report is submitted, the foreign language profession is ready to go forward, to act on those proposals which are meritorious. The authors of this volume have helped by thinking through the rationale, identifying successful programs for a diverse group of students, and proposing appropriate learner outcomes. The new imperatives of and for the profession must now be communicated to the public. In the final analysis, the public relations task will be accomplished by the personal dynamic brought to bear. Lewis Thomas (9), humanist and scientist, in his essay "On Committees" describes the important communication process in terms foreign language educators might remember in the work ahead.

> We pass the word around; we ponder how the case is put by different people . . . we change our minds; we reach an understanding. Society evolves this way, not by shouting each other down, but by the unique capacity of unique, individual beings to comprehend each other (p. 120).

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Profiles and perspectives

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Introduction

Motivation and its components are recognized as important elements in determining the amount of language learned by each student, as well as in influencing the decision to enroll and to continue beyond first- or second-year language study. In his model of school learning, Carroll (2) describes perseverance as an element of learning and includes as some of its aspects "to please the teacher, to please one's parents or friends, to get good grades or other external rewards, to feed one's self-esteem, to avoid disapproval . . ." (p. 729). These motivational factors are worthy of study. Can the influence of each of these factors be identified? If so, the possibility arises that the teacher could arrange a learning situation that might engage the learner's interest and motivate him or her to persevere longer than he or she might have persevered. Although Nelson and Jakobovits (6) present evidence indicating that "students' negative attitudes may actually be strengthened, not weakened, by being forced to learn unwanted aspects of language" (p. 69), perhaps the significance of this statement lies in the fact that the students were indeed "forced" to learn that which they found "unwanted." If the elements could be identified which influence students to "want" to study that which they formerly found "unwanted," the classroom situation might be modifiable to enhance this desire to learn.

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Gardner and Lambert (3) contend that the distinction between "instrumental" and "integrative" motivation is at the heart of a basic classification of students in second-language classes. They define instrumental motivation as having

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a utilitarian nature; students having this type of motivation to learn a second language see its acquisition as a means to an end, i.e., "a desire to gain social recognition or economic advantages through knowledge of a foreign language" (p. 14). Research studies done by Gardner and Lambert and others have found that integrative motivation appears to lead to more positive attitudes toward language learning as well as toward higher achievement than instrumental motivation.

From another perspective, a study by Myers (5) found that components of motivation for American students of second languages can be grouped into "classroom" and "environmental" factors. Classroom factors include all aspects of student participation and personal experiences within the classroom, e.g., activities, speaking, reading, learning about the culture. Environmental factors are defined as those influences on students which are outside their own personal language learning experiences, e.g., influences of teachers, parents, peers, educational requirements, and/or future job. This study of 400 secondary school students of French, German, and Spanish in Minnesota found that the classroom factor greatly outweighed the environmental factor in influencing continuation of second-language study.

Recent survey results support the premise that the motivation of American students in second-language classes may be more complex than the integrative/instrumental model allows. Both informal surveys and in-depth studies conclude that the American student is definitely influenced by classroom factors, which are essentially but not purely integrative in nature.

For example, in an informal survey of 254 senior high school students in Minnesota, Spiegelberg (7) found that students who had never studied a second language responded very similarly to those who were current or former language students when asked the question: "What do you feel is the value of knowing a second language?" Both groups most valued *travel* and *communication;* the nonlanguage students ranked job opportunities third, while the language students ranked cultural aspects, such as customs and life-style, as highly as communication. These results reflect the complexities of the 1970s in the United States as supported by the Myers study, as opposed to the dichotomy proposed by Gardner and Lambert.

Another example is that of a survey of 438 Spanish students in grades three through college in California. McEwan and Minkle (4) found that the categories of "joy of learning, and recreation" and "improved communication, global awareness, and culture" were mentioned most often by students surveyed at all grade levels, as reflecting their needs in the second-language classroom. Of the 26 items on the questionnaire, the three reasons for second-language study chosen by all age levels were: (1) I think it would be fun to learn and know a foreign language, (2) I would like to visit a foreign country, and (3) It will help me understand other people better (p. 95). The results of this study reiterate the desire of students to use second languages in communication and travel, as well as the interest in learning a language for the joy of learning.

The national study conducted in England by Burstall (1), a ten-year longitudinal study of student attitudes toward the study of French, found that those who had traveled to the target culture scored significantly higher in both attitude and achievement than those who had not. She also found no evidence to support the division into integrative and instrumental motivation categories, reflecting that the situation in Canada might be very different from that in England, and from that in the United States.

The majority of these research studies and surveys consists of choice responses to objective instruments. Are the results indeed reflecting the motivating factors for students of second languages? What are the attitudes of the American public in general toward second-language learning and toward people speaking other languages, living in other cultures? What are the perceived benefits of language learning and the use to be made of language skills for the typical American?

Recently a wide range of Americans responded to an informal open-ended interview concerning their attitudes toward second languages and second-language study. Tape-recorded interviews based on a 27-item questionnaire (reproduced at the end of this chapter) focused on:

A) the benefits resulting from second-language study
B) the attitudes toward speakers of other languages
C) the need for Americans to study second languages
D) the description of remembered classroom activities in second-language courses
E) the use of skills acquired in the second-language classrooms
F) an evaluation of second-language study experiences

An attempt was made to obtain responses from a variety of geographical locations, socioeconomic levels, ages, length of second-language study, and success of second-language study. Since the results are not statistically random, their presentation will be purely descriptive as representative of a range of individuals and a variety of second-language experiences.

The results of these interviews are summarized in this chapter according to the six categories listed above. The chapter concludes with a summary statement, suggesting where we as a profession may have succeeded and what needs may yet have to be met. The subsequent chapters in this volume address several of these needs, citing practical approaches to meeting them in the second-language classroom.

Demographics of the interviewees

Profiles of Americans' attitudes toward second languages and second-language study were gathered by means of oral interviews conducted by educators across the country. In all, 38 interviews were conducted by 16 second-language educators (a list of interviewers is given at the end of this chapter). Transcripts of 28 additional viewpoints resulting from public forums held during March 1979 were submitted by two additional educators. These 64 viewpoints represent 13 states:

Arkansas, California, Connecticut, Colorado, Louisiana, Massachusetts, Minnesota, New York, Oklahoma, Pennsylvania, Texas, Virginia, and Washington. Of the 38 interviewees, 24 were female, 14 male. Regarding age, nine interviewees were between 11 and 18 years of age; 17 were 19-33 years old; and 12 were 35-56. The highest degree attained by the interviewees ranged from a high school diploma to a doctorate degree; degrees held included A.A., B.A./B.S., M.A., M.D., and Ph.D. Students surveyed were currently at the junior high, senior high, undergraduate, and graduate school levels. Representation among occupations also varied widely. Twenty of the 38 interviewees were currently full- or part-time students. Other occupations included:

- administrative assistant
- architect
- bilingual secretary
- custodial worker
- educator
- instructional aide
- juvenile police officer
- learning center director
- librarian
- museum guard
- nurse
- opthalmic technician
- optometric assistant
- physician
- record clerk in bank archives
- research director
- salesman
- secretary
- supervisor in career education
- teacher

In as much as occupations may be used as a descriptor, a range of income levels and socioeconomic levels was also deemed to have been obtained through this informal sampling process.

The number of languages studied by the interviewees varied:

Second-languages studied	Number of interviewees
0	3
1	15
2	13
3	6
6	1

The number of years spent in studying a second language, tabulated and totaled for each language studied, whether consecutive or concurrent, from elementary school through university levels, ranged from 0 for three persons, to 16 years for one person:

Years of second-language study	Number of interviewees
0	3
1	3
2	2
3	5
4	6
5	4
6	2
7	2

Years of second-language study	Number of interviewees
8	2
9	2
10	2
12	1
13	1
14	2
16	1

Each of those interviewed participated in an oral tape-recorded interview of about 20 minutes in duration, responding to 27 open-ended questions; these tapes were transcribed and the responses were grouped into the six categories mentioned above. Each of the six issues addressed in the questionnaire is presented in the following sections, with summary statements and direct quotations presenting the views of those interviewed.

Perspectives on second-language study

A General benefits of second-language study

Educators often promote the study of second languages on the basis of its intrinsic value, that the experience itself is an enriching one which will contribute in many general ways to the learner's profession, life, and world view. The following responses are typical of those received when persons were asked, "What benefits can you see from foreign language study?" (Note: Initials identify interviewer as named at end of chapter.)

> An instructuional aide in Colorado: "I have gone outside myself as an American." (SB:Linda)

> A graduate student in Minnesota: "It's given me a less parochial view of the world." (HM:Nancy)

> An art history graduate student: "It would help me in my eventual career in museum education, with art history research." (LL:Paula)

> A research director in state government: "An appreciation of how an idea in two languages can be not only expressed differently, but mean somewhat different things." (PM:Colleen)

> A graduate student in business administration: "There is evident financial benefit for me, right now, speaking Japanese, because I'm able to put myself through school." (MP:Carol)

An MD in Massachusetts: "It's a tremendous benefit as far as foreign travel goes, obviously, and also for working in certain parts of the United States in my job, as far as communication goes." (JPB:WS)

A bilingual secretary in an international firm in Pennsylvania: "It helps to better understand people of many countries, to negotiate better in business terms, to come to agreements better, because I was able to speak their own language." (JB:LORRAINE)

A student in a French-English bilingual program in Louisiana: "Everyone should be able to speak their own language. It is good to know more than one language." (MC:JAMES)

A home economics teacher, with no language background: "Foreign terms in my area, cooking and fashion, so I think it would be excellent." (LC: DENA)

An architect in Massachusetts: "Broadening vocabulary, and understanding of other peoples, other cultures." (JPB:WG)

A student in a Cherokee-English bilingual program in Oklahoma: "To give information to the student, whatever his/her racial or cultural heritage might be. This is lacking in today's textbooks. Also, to help the student develop pride in his/her culture and to motivate the child to learn his own language first." (MC:OLETHA)

A nurse in California: "Able to talk with other people, communicate, enhance their feelings of self-worth, and my own." (DV:NELDA)

A high school student in Arkansas: "Cultural depth and insight, more rounded person, more self-confidence and respect, may open doors, a benefit and challenge to almost any student." (MC:DONNA)

The benefits of second-language study mentioned by those surveyed were varied, and indeed, extremely positive. Several specific benefits were cited repeatedly as underlying the importance of second-language study generally and its specific contributions to the respondents' professions, their lives, and their views of the world.

1 *Increased awareness of the world we live in* was an oft repeated theme. As one teacher put it, second-language study

> . . . widened my spectrum on the world, and made my own American culture appear in a more objective light. As far as affecting my world view, it's made all the difference in the world there, too, because it's made me aware of how very, very delicate the matter of intercultural differences is, and this can have very, very far-reaching effects on the way people get

> along with each other, both on a personal level, and on a more national level, such as in the world of international relations and diplomacy. (HM: MICHAEL)

Others echoed the theme:

> "It widens your perspective." (MP:THERESA)

> A bilingual educator suggests: "Children in bilingual education are better educated from the point of view that working knowledge of more than one language creates a linguistically enriched person. It can lead to a more internationally aware education system." (MC:JACKIE)

> A research director continues: "I think it's arrogant to think that English is the only language spoken in the world, and I think it's naive to think that we can get by in our lives, particularly in the next generation, with knowing only one language, because the world is too small. . . . I'm pleased if our [governmental] people can speak in the language of the other country. I think it's a courtesy. . . . When it comes to world news, we're very much limited. . . . If you could read other [languages], you might have a different perspective on world news." (PM:COLLEEN)

> A college freshman in a prelaw program states: "It expands your knowledge in general, and you have to realize that you're not the only person or the only nation on earth." (JP:LAWRENCE)

> A high school student summarizes: "The benefits of learning a second language are limitless. It is a way of expanding one's horizons. A person begins to realize how secluded he really is. Learning a foreign language has enabled me to have many experiences that I would not have had otherwise. I have met a few people from the country of my second language. I felt fortunate that I was one of the few Americans to know a foreign language." (MS:STUDENT)

A high school home economics teacher with no second language study in her background reflects on her loss:

> "I just find it really lacking in my life that I didn't have a foreign language." (LC:DENA)

Still others comment on the urgency for Americans to study other languages in today's world, for personal and business reasons:

> "With the world as small as it is, and the countries interacting as they are, if you know another language, I think you will better understand the viewpoint of people." (JB:MARIE)

"[A language] makes me more interested in finding out about what is going on in the world around me. And I think it has definitely broadened my world view." (HM:Nancy)

"[Language study] would give me the ability to read foreign language newspapers or magazines, to learn about incidents and events in the world from their point of view." (VK:Denis)

"I'd take a special note of places where I had some smattering of the culture or the language. Generally it's because I've made friends, and I take a special note in the international news about things happening in Norway or Finland, because I have friends there, and if I learned the language then it would be even more." (JPB:WG)

"As far as importance for your life, I think it can influence you; once you know a foreign language, and if you've had the chance to go to a foreign country, you, for one, are a little bit more accepting of people, and of other ways, and your world view is a little bit broadened, especially for Americans, who just think there can be nothing else than America." (MP:Carol)

"I think anybody who is exposed to foreign languages is of necessity, maybe automatically, exposed to the cultures that contain the languages. My sensitivity is very enhanced because I've studied languages. For example, when they were signing the [peace] treaty in Washington last week, I was wondering what was said in Arabic and in Hebrew on the other copies, and I was wondering if everybody got it right–if everything was complete. I get very angry when people come [to the United States], and we aren't able to service them in their own language. I think that's a terrible shame. That's got to be improved!

I would say, especially for Americans, considering our world position, it's not only important, it's becoming essential. The area of international understanding must be explored thoroughly by this country. We are a world leader, and we can only benefit ourselves as far as commerce and trade are concerned, cultural exchange, and just understanding. There are too many crises, every day, in these times, to ignore the value of a foreign language. It's been too undermined and too underrated in this country thus far. It has to be stepped up!" (JB:Lorraine)

2 Related directly to an increased awareness of our world is the *increased cultural awareness and understanding of the people* living in those cultures that result from second-language study. The importance of learning about other cultures and people is seen as one of the major reasons for second-language study today.

Several comments related to changing the picture of the "ugly American":

> "In my world view, I think it has made me more tolerant and more understanding of other people, rather than being the "ugly American" of the 1950s." (SB:LINDA)

> "I think particularly Americans are prone to feel that the world is Americanized and it's important for us to realize that that is not the case, nor necessarily should it be the case." (HM:NANCY)

> "I believe it is important, just to know that something else is out there besides your own language." (MP:CAROL)

> "You've given yourself a chance to see something else, instead of being so close-minded about sticking with your own language." (JB:JANICE)

Others refer to the appreciation of another culture and its people:

> "I think that in order to understand the people that we must deal with, we can understand them better by knowing their language. It fosters an appreciation of other people if you learn their language." (JB:MARIE)

> "In dealing with people, if you can speak another language, it helps you better to help other people." (JB:MARIE)

> "I think [language study] has certainly broadened my outlook as far as different cultures go, and different ways of living, and looking at things. Certainly through my university exchange experience [a four-month stay in Germany] I learned to appreciate another culture, and way of living that I wouldn't have known before." (JPB:WS)

The understanding of other people is stressed by many respondents:

> "Anyone and everyone should learn another language. Besides the fact that you can then talk with someone, you also learn their culture at the same time. A different culture. Ours is not the only one that exists; there is diversity in everything." (MC:SUSAN)

> "Just so that you can see another culture. You don't just have your own language and ideas about life; you see other people." (JB:JANICE)

> "I think you will understand people better if you know the language, a second language, and if you're able to understand them, and how they think, by understanding their life-styles, through their language." (JB: MARIE)

> "It gives us a deeper understanding of the people we're communicating with. In this profession [education] I think that being able to communicate effectively with people is very important. And sometimes that might depend to some extent on the ability to communicate in a different language, at least to be sensitive to the language and the people and the culture." (SB:DOROTHY)

Still others emphasized the importance of understanding other cultures:

> "It's essential to learn and to know about different cultures. And certainly in the United States, it's very important especially in some public service jobs to know Spanish, which is very, very helpful." (JPB:WS)

> "I've been a student of other cultures for quite awhile, and you can learn an awful lot about people from the way they use their language." (LL: PAULA)

> "Having studied the language and the different culture classes, or just the culture that's picked up through it, you're exposed to another point of view and it tends to widen your perspective, generally." (MP:THERESA)

> "You find out you truly learn a culture after you learn a language, and you can't really learn a culture until you do know the language, and I would say that is the most enriching aspect of knowing a foreign language." (SB:LANCE)

3 *The ability to communicate in another language, abroad and at home* was high in frequency on the list of benefits derived from second-language study. This need to communicate was felt to be particularly important in traveling to non-English-speaking groups within our own borders.

Importance of oral communication is exemplified by three quotations, the first by a nurse, the second by a fine arts teacher, and the third by an elementary school student.

> "I would be able to talk with other people, and to communicate with other people, enhance their feelings of self-worth, and my own." (DV: NELDA)

> "[I chose Spanish because of] the beauty of the language, the beauty of the fact of being able to speak another language, and not just speaking English." (SL:ROBERTA)

> "You can talk to somebody who knows French!" (DL:KEVIN)

The importance of written communication is also supported.

> "If you learn a foreign language, you can read things that the foreigner has written in their own tongue, that isn't limited to their proficiency in English, or to the ability of a translator to translate. You can hear it *fresh*, and unadulterated, from the source." (MP:CAROL)

> "It gives you access to information that's written in other languages, that isn't written in English. That's for me!" (LL:PAULA)

> "I found it enriching that I can pick up a book that's not in my own language, and read it, and understand it." (SB:LINDA)

> "I think the ability to communicate in another language, perhaps the opportunity to use it, either in travel or correspondence, with individuals or another country, for business or personal reasons [is the importance of foreign-language study]." (VK:DENIS)

4 *Travel* is mentioned as one of the more obvious and overall benefits of second-language study.

> "If I had the money, I would like to travel someday. I took Italian in college, basically because Italy was the country I most would like to go to [as an art history major]. I would hope to be able to do that someday, and I would make use of the Italian on such a trip." (LL:PAULA)

> "There's no question. To my life, [language study] has added a new dimension, the interest in traveling especially." (JPB:WS)

> "There is the possibility that we'll live in a foreign country, and because of that it's more practical for us to be able to speak the language of the country." (MP:CAROL)

> "I think if you go to another country and you have studied the language that they speak there, it shows the people that you have some interest beyond just coming to look and see, and it shows an interest that isn't just superficial. I think it's some kind of commitment to that culture or that people." (MP:THERESA)

Even from a high school student, who has studied no second language and who apparently sees no other immediately identifiable benefit to himself from such study: "The only benefits I could see is if I would go to another country. But otherwise I can't see too much from it." (SB:STEVE)

5 Use of the second language within one's *career plans* also rated rather high on the list of benefits to be derived. Types of professions or occupations cited in which second languages were perceived as an asset included:

art history research
bilingual secretary
business
business administration
buying for clothing retailers
emergency room medicine
fine arts teaching and research
foreign affairs analyst
home economics teaching
instructional aide
international banking
international sales
international student advising
language teaching
lawyer
librarian
museum education
nursing
radio and communications
social worker

Several students, from junior high through university levels, mentioned opportunities that open after having completed language study, and the relative ease of learning the second foreign language after having studied the first, as additional benefits of language learning. The former librarian and the student in prelaw commented as follows:

> "I have training as a librarian. There is no doubt that knowledge of foreign languages is critical there. One simply cannot limit oneself by national boundaries when looking up things, doing research, or searching for information generally. To this day, one of the places I know that goes to great lengths to hire people with strong foreign language backgrounds are libraries that have strong technical services sections and a multi-language collection." (PM:Colleen)

> "I want to become a lawyer and deal with people, not just people in the United States. And this helps you to understand all people as well as those who speak English." (JP:Lawrence)

And from the home economics teacher, with no second-language study background:

> "Since I studied foreign foods, it's driving me nuts. I just want to go to these countries and taste all these foods I've learned about and talked about. Kids always ask me: 'Have you been all these places?' and I have to go, 'No.' But it just drives me nuts. I want to see these things and I want to do those things that you always hear about and read about." (LC:Dena)

6 *Expanded knowledge of the English language* and of general language knowledge is another benefit traditionally cited by second-language educators. Those surveyed often mentioned improved use of their native language and increased understanding of derivations and structure as benefits received directly from second-language study.

> From a junior high school student: "Some words might be derived from a foreign language, and it can help you to know where the words are really coming from." (DL:Erik)

From a Director of an American Indian Learning and Resource Center: "I took Latin when I was in high school, and I had four years of it, and it's helped me enormously, because I've been able to build upon English because of the Latin, because there are so many of the words that are derived from the Latin, and Latin is a very logical kind of language." (WP:FLO)

From a student in a bilingual program in Oklahoma: "Through studying root words of both Cherokee and English, the similarities and structure of languages is more clear." (MC:OLETHA)

From a research director: "I think that it helps in understanding English grammar. It helps to understand [and] to make guesses about what words mean, by knowing the roots." (PM:COLLEEN)

From a bilingual secretary: "I was raised in a bilingual home, and I was able to appreciate very early in life, and was exposed to, the sounds of another set of symbols, another language." (JB:LORRAINE)

General benefits, then, include a broadened world view, an increased cultural awareness, increased facility in communicating with other people, increased interest and ease in travel, enhanced career plans, and an expanded knowledge of the native language. The perspectives of these respondents appear to support the premise of the educators that second-language study is indeed of general benefit to the learner. (Note: These narratives are based on items 1, 2, 3, and 26 in the questionnaire.)

B Attitudes toward speakers of other languages

Educators also tend to agree that second-language study encourages positive change in attitudes toward other cultures and other people; it is contended that by merely studying the language, students often gain insights that positively change their reactions to speakers of the language studied.

According to those responding, the facility of the American tourist in the languages of the countries visited had profound effects on both the tourist's attitude toward the foreign nationals and on the perceived attitude toward the traveler. Approximately two-thirds of those responding to this questionnaire had traveled in countries where English is not the first language. These travelers had visited parts of Africa, Asia, Europe, Canada, Mexico, and/or several South American countries.

Americans who spoke the language of the countries in which they traveled found the people who were native to that country to be "very friendly," "neat!," and "extremely gracious." The travelers were "pleasantly surprised" by their reception, and they were "a little envious"; "I was embarrassed by my lack of knowledge" recalls one teacher (MM:VICKI).

Americans who used their language skills in traveling responded positively to the countries in which they traveled as did this graduate student:

> "My attitude toward them was at first one of some apprehension, but basically I grew to accept them as they grew to accept me, as communicators in the German language." (HM:MICHAEL)

In trying to describe the reaction of the foreigners to the American tourist, again, language proficiency played a decisive role. Americans with language skills thought these people were "most considerate," "gentle and kind," "positive," "quite tolerant and basically helpful," and "very sympathetic." Typical comments include:

> "If you're American, the little kids really like Americans. They think they're really great." (DL:ERIK)
>
> "People treated me nicely. You can't just walk up to someone who's new and scared and who doesn't speak the language very well." (DL:KEVIN)
>
> "[They] made every effort to understand us and our way of thinking, more so than we were possibly prepared to do for them." (JB:MARIE)
>
> "[In Germany] they greatly admired any attempt that I would make to speak in their language." (HM:MICHAEL)

Respondents with no language skills who traveled felt somewhat at a loss:

> "It depended on the country. . . . Ten years ago we went to Expo, up in Montreal, and it seemed to us that people *there* were pleased and were encouraging for you to try to speak French, and that was very different from the way it was in France when we tried to speak French. And so we have a nice feeling about the people in Canada, and we have a very unpleasant feeling about the people in France. However, in other countries, in the Netherlands, people were very friendly; they tolerated our English; they understood it. Of course, in the Scandinavian countries they didn't seem to be angry at us because we didn't speak their language." (JPB:WG)
>
> "In Africa, there was some distance and scorn toward someone who could not speak the local language, and I could understand that." (HM:ILZE)
>
> "They tend to feel that you're just a tourist or a visitor, but it's not like you have any real interest in them. Whereas if you had the language, I think it would show them that you have an interest in them, to find out about them." (MP:THERESA)
>
> "I found that when I spoke English to people in Mexico, and spoke my own native language to them, I was treated civilly, certainly, and pleasantly, but I found that when I made an attempt to speak in their own language . . . regardless of how well I did, I was treated with a great deal more

> respect. I could tell that the Mexicans appreciated greatly my attempts at speaking their language." (SB:LANCE)

Reactions to exchange programs bringing foreign students to the United States and/or sending American students abroad, were very positive about the ultimate good, both for the visitor and for the host school and host family. The programs were described as a "good thing," "excellent," "really good," "positive," "one of the best things," "enriching," "great," "tremendous"; some mentioned that these programs "widen your views," "help everyone," and that the student can "see what life-styles are like." Some concern was mentioned for sending only qualified students whose goals were congruent with learning about the culture and the language of the host country.

Change in attitude as a result of language study according to the sampling is an undecided issue. Even though respondents were overwhelmingly positive regarding broadened world views, as many persons responded positively as negatively to the question, "Has your attitude changed toward people who speak foreign languages or toward foreign cultures?" Some responded that their attitudes had always been positive toward other cultures, and that second-language classes, therefore, had no effect on their attitudes. Others responded that the study of foreign peoples and foreign cultures through foreign languages, made them "understand more," "appreciative," "more tolerant," and "more respectful."

> "[My world view] is changing. When I first came to St. Catherine's I took the language because I had to. Otherwise, I wouldn't have. But now that I'm getting into it, I'm seeing how neat it is to learn about other cultures. I never knew that there were so many differences! . . . I'm aware of a lot of stereotypes people will have, and making me aware of those has enabled me to evaluate it, and say 'Hey, wait a minute. That's a stereotype!' " (LL:MARY)

Overwhelmingly positive responses were received regarding the relevance of combining language study with the study of culture.

> "I think they overlap a lot because as you're learning words, you learn the values [of the people whose language you're studying]." (LL:MARY)

> "I liked the best when they taught you different traditions, different foods of the country that you were studying. . . . You can see how the language is used by the people, how they would use it through life, instead of just learning the grammar." (SL:JOHN)

This combination "helps [students] understand both," gives "real value to all language study," provides "relevance of context," and is indeed the real "motivation." Otherwise, language study alone may be "less interesting," "stilted," and even "boring."

Overall, respondents revealed very positive attitudes toward speakers of other languages. Those with little or no language skills who had traveled in non-English-speaking countries felt they received a generally less positive reception speaking English than when they made an attempt to use the language of their hosts. Travelers with language skills felt they were received cordially, and they appeared to have more positive attitudes toward speakers of other languages than travelers who only spoke English. Exchange programs are seen as a positive step toward learning about other people and cultures. (Note: Narratives are based on items 5, 8, 16-18 of the questionnaire.)

C Need for second-language study

Given a choice of what to learn to say in the second language, people would like most to "communicate," "socially and professionally," about "everything," "to express everyday, social concerns," "to be able to talk fluently," and to "travel without feeling lost." People don't generally think of separate skills when asked this question; they want to be able to say whatever is necessary in light conversation!

> A nurse responds: "To be able to reassure somebody and to encourage somebody and to comfort someone and to talk to someone in a meaningful manner, so that you can pass information back and forth. That's communication, and that's what you'd have to do." (DV:NELDA)

Others respond according to their own views on what they "need" to know in the second language.

> "I'd like to be fluent enough to speak to people, to understand shades of meaning, to read literature, to go to the theatre, [and] to participate in the culture." (HM:ILZE)

> "I think to be functionally fluent in a foreign language, so that you can travel abroad and not see only those parts of a country which can deal with you in your own language. To be able to travel into less frequented cities, to be able to talk to people in their own language is a benefit both because I learned something, and because the impression that they have of me as an American is quite different than it would be if I go in and refuse to show that I am willing to learn something about them." (HM:NANCY)

> "I'd love to be able to sit down with someone who was from France or Spain or whatever, and be able to talk fluently, not using English, with them, and know what they're saying and not have any gaps. But having had only two years of each language, I can't do that." (JB:JANICE)

"The value of a second language to me is that I probably would never use it, so that means that the value for it would be zero, unless I was to move to some foreign country and live there. Then I would probably need it." (MS:HIGH SCHOOL STUDENT)

"I would like to be able to communicate better with people who do not speak my native language, or people who feel more comfortable speaking their own native language." (SB:LANCE)

"I'd like to be able to talk to the people, find out how they feel about things, if they feel the same way I do. When I go into stores, I'd be able to communicate my wishes to the salespeople; that would be very important!" (SL:MADELYNNE)

"I could use it on the job. It's very difficult to try and communicate with [non-English speakers, in the doctor's office], what you're doing, why you're doing it. It's just very nice to be able to put someone at ease, who does not speak our language. It would be very beneficial, even just being in this country, without even leaving it. [We have patients who speak] Vietnamese and Spanish." (VK:BETTY)

When asked if they knew people who spoke foreign languages, respondents varied along a continuum from "just about everybody I know speaks a foreign language, or several!" (HM:ILZE), to "nobody personally." More than 50 percent know persons who speak another language. A doctor responded: "I regret that I don't have occasion to be able to use a foreign language in the United States" (JPB:WS), while others use it frequently. A high school senior commented: "That's the main reason I took French when I was a junior in high school. I've known [my French-Canadian neighbors] for a long time, and that's what got me interested in the French" (JB:JANICE).

Frequency of hearing foreign languages spoken also varied from "constantly" to "sometimes," "every once in a while," and "occasionally," with both extremes, and some in the middle range, represented by respondents in nearly every state represented in the survey. A bilingual secretary working for a large international business located in Connecticut: "It happens to me all the time" (JB:LORRAINE). Others mentioned hearing languages other than English on the radio and at the movies. A university administrator adds: "I hear them [foreign languages] probably on the campus more than anywhere else, with the foreign students, and I listen to the things that they're saying. I don't understand any of it, but I think it's very positive that at least we're hearing something besides English" (WP:FLO).

The needs stated most frequently by these respondents can be summarized simply as the ability to communicate informally. Some regretted that their language study had been too brief to reach this level of fluency. Many reflected a need to use language to share feelings and information with non-English speakers. (Note: Based on items 4, 6, and 7 of the questionnaire.)

D Classroom second language study

The most enjoyable parts of language courses were speaking and reading, according to those responding to this survey. In all, 16 persons specifically mentioned speaking; several others referred to conversation, verbal communication and eliciting oral reponses, as well as active involvement in the language process. Also, 15 specifically mentioned reading as being the most enjoyable part of language study. Understanding and being understood in the second language ranked high on the list of enjoyable activities, along with listening and writing. Also mentioned as most enjoyable were culture, vocabulary, and rote memorization. Cited as the most difficult parts of the language courses were writing, reading, and listening for the purpose of recording what was heard. The variety of these responses supports educators' contentions that students enter language courses with a variety of expectations and a variety of interests; our language classes generally attempt to meet these needs by teaching the four skills, i.e., listening, speaking, reading, writing, and also culture. Perhaps we would be wise to survey our students periodically, and thus be able to orient the course content toward the topic(s) most desired.

Attitudes toward second-language teachers were not neutral. With some exceptions, respondents found their language teachers "excellent," "very positive." "very good," "knowledgeable," "competent," "very inspiring," "dedicated," "demanding," and "experienced." Students liked teachers who "did culture," "used the language and encouraged students to use the language," "spoke in the language they were teaching." They disliked teachers who "knew what they were saying, but couldn't get it across," were "too mechanical, not practical enough," or were "very critical, narrow-minded, dry, humorless, [and] sarcastic." One respondent had learned that "a good foreign language teacher is hard to find"; another decided that "some were less awful than others." Among the respondents, there is no question as to which type of teacher most inspired students.

> "I've had a spectrum of teachers, from people who were afraid to speak the foreign language to very good ones who spoke and used the language and encouraged the students to use it. And those are the ones I liked most, of course." (HM:ILZE)

> "Since I had never had another language before [college], I was a little hesitant about going into foreign-language learning. The class had a very relaxed atmosphere, and [the teacher] was willing to give the class the opportunity to decide what it is they wanted to go into, more reading, [or] more writing, and then specifically in the different areas: culture or literature or history." (MP:THERESA)

> "On the college level, I had an American professor who was a dynamic teacher. She was a nun and had spent many, many of her years in Spain and had picked up a fairly good Spanish accent. But she had an in-depth

> knowledge of the language, of the people, and of the culture. I think I learned a love for my major subject from her that I did not get when I was in high school." (SB:LANCE)

In responding to a question regarding the kinds of language teachers they had had, former students described former teachers as "well-trained," "enthusiastic," "dynamic," "interested," "pleasant," "encouraging," and "fluent." Others found their teachers to have been "mechanical," "not terribly enthusiastic," with "some more creative than others," some "demanding," and others "well-meaning."

> "Again, there were all kinds. My best work has been with teachers who have been enthusiastic, well-trained, and who found the language a challenge and encouraged me to learn to my maximum ability." (HM:ILZE)

> "I think I can say I've had both dynamic and relatively static teachers, and all of them were well-trained, but some of them were certainly more creative than others, and that did make a big difference to me." (HM:NANCY)

> "The ones who truly inspired me were the enthusiastic ones; it goes without saying." (HM:MICHAEL)

> "[Enthusiasm] is all, more so than any other field of education. I believe that the teaching of foreign languages is more subject to personal abilities of the teacher than any other field." (SB:LANCE)

> "Some of them I liked; some were so-so. [The difference was] personality. I could tell certain teachers invested more time, and all teachers could teach us the basic skills of the language, learning the verbs and gender, but the teachers that stuck out were the ones that showed more enthusiasm about not just the language, but that language represents a different culture, and a different people from us, and they were excited about that." (LL:PHIL)

Former second-language students remembered learning reading, grammar, and culture in their language classes. Also frequently mentioned were speaking, vocabulary, and writing. In addition, some included history, communicating, literature, and verbs. At least one person mentioned readings that had apparently been chosen more for the teachers' preference than for the students' understanding, ability, or enjoyment.

When asked what they had done in the language classroom, most often mentioned were reading and speaking. Also frequently mentioned were writing, exercises, practice drilling, learning grammar, listening, and vocabulary. Remembered activities included spelling bees, relay races, games, songs, skits, slides, filmstrips, and movies.

> "The activities vary greatly. They can go anywhere from watching a movie to language drills. I would say that's one advantage of a foreign-language class; rarely is one bored, because it's rarely repetitive. There's so many different ways in which a language teacher can present the curriculum." (SB:LANCE)

In describing the amount of focus on the language itself, as compared with the amount of emphasis on the people who speak the language, or on the cultures of those people, the majority (29 persons) commented that much more than 50 percent of the time was spent on learning the language itself; these percentages ranged from 60 percent to 100 percent of the time being spent on the structure of the language. Others (6 persons) remembered their classes as being focused equally on language and culture, 50 percent of the time being devoted to each. A few recalled courses that were more than 50 percent devoted to the culture; one of these interviewees commented on the fact that nothing at all appeared to be taught; another was a Spanish literature and history major in college, who felt that 95 percent of her courses were devoted to the arts, and thus to the culture of Spanish-speaking countries.

The wide variety of responses regarding remembered classroom second-language study is revealing. When the responses for the most enjoyable and the most difficult parts of the courses were tabulated, each of the four skills and culture were found in each category. In describing the kinds of teachers they liked and those they had had, interviewees again evidenced a variety of responses. An image emerges of the range of persons teaching language courses. Very positive student support is revealed for those teachers who use the language and encourage their students to use it, who bring cultural knowledge and experiences to the classroom and incorporate it into the language instruction, and who are enthusiastic about their language teaching and give positive support and encouragement to their students. (Note: Based on items 19-21, and 25 of the questionnaire.)

E Use of second-language skills

Twelve of the respondents stated that they had taken second-language courses for the purpose of using the language in travel. Twelve also stated that they had indeed used their skills in travel. The extent of this use was generally extremely positive: "helped immensely," "definitely," "a great deal," "absolutely," "a very large extent," "an advantage," and "a lot." Travelers used their language skills in restaurants and in conversing with people native to the countries visited. Some travelers found that their language skills were inappropriate for use in their travels; in one case, the French-Canadians were not accepting of the visitor's classroom Parisian accent. And in another case, the Parisian French found an American's Upper Voltan accent disturbing (a result of the classroom teacher's travels to Upper Volta). A third case involved an American in Paris having great difficulty communicating with the French.

> "When I went to France as a high school student, it helped immensely [to know French], because the family I got paired with didn't speak any English at all. It was very essential for me to be able to communicate with them in some way, and be able to buy stamps or whatever. So many things go so much quicker if you can speak the language, instead of just relying on sign language or phrase books." (MP:CAROL)

> "The ability to communicate with people in their tongue made them more at ease, and, of course, I found that communication was much easier. [I used the language] as much as I possibly could, at every opportunity I could, using a taxi cab, in a restaurant, shopping, speaking with people, walking through the University of Mexico, going into the library and chatting with the librarian, walking the grounds." (VK:DENIS)

> "Studying the language helped immensely in making my travels more enjoyable and, as a matter of fact, I doubt very much whether I would have gone to that foreign country had I not had experience in the language." (HM:MICHAEL)

Included in those who took languages for the purpose of travel are some who have not had the opportunity but who are still eager to travel: "I can hardly wait to go over," "It's my next big goal," and "[I] still hope to travel."

> "I haven't [traveled], but I definitely think [languages] an advantage. At the time I was studying them, I was looking at them as something that would prepare me for travel, which I still hope to do." (HM:NANCY)

After having completed second-language study, 20 respondents stated that they have read materials in that language. The number of times they had read foreign-language materials varied from "alot," "many times," for two respondents, to "a couple," "a little," "occasionally," "as often as possible," "not really," "not unless forced to," and "tried to." The types of reading mentioned included books, both current novels and children's books at the high school level; short stories and poetry; magazines, and newspapers. Two respondents mentioned that they would like to be able to read easily in the second language.

> "My languages are not that great that I'd be able to read them. I have seen them, and I think there's some value in that, just the exposure, just the realization that really a great deal is required in order to attain that level where you'd be able to do that kind of thing." (SB:DOROTHY)

> "You mean that they have magazines, and newspapers, and television, and radio in languages besides English?" (PM:JUNIOR HIGH STUDENT)

> "I occasionally still read French newspapers, when something happens in France that I can hear about in English, that I'm interested in, because I

> think what we get here in English is a little slanted, or might not have all the details, so if I can get my hands on one I'll read one.
>
> As far as Japanese goes, I always read, because Japanese is so very difficult to learn, if you don't keep it up it's very easy to forget, and that's one way for me to catch up on both news and my working vocabulary.
>
> In Chinese, I do read some things when I see a newspaper, but it's more just for reading practice than anything else." (MP:CAROL)

After having completed second-language study, 19 respondents report that they had viewed movies in the second languages. Four of these persons stated that they see movies in the target language "many times," "frequently," "as often as I can, twice a month," and "once every month or two." Three others have seen "a few" or "a couple" movies in the language. Others have seen television shows in the target language, with captions in English, or movies depicting Spanish and/or Mexican culture. Comments made of foreign films using English subtitles were generally negative; "found subtitles distracting," and "English captions [are] disconcerting."

When asked if they had used their foreign-language skills in any other ways, 21 people responded affirmatively. The extent of language use varied from "in all aspects of my life" for two respondents, to "a little," and "rarely" for four respondents. In commenting about how they used their language skills, the respondents frequently included "conversation with people I know," "travel," "translating," "foreign movies," and "in my job." Others named a variety of uses of the language skills.

translation
technical skill
teaching
reading correspondence
tutoring
self-confidence
writing personal correspondence
conducting tours at art museum
graduate study
research
reading
restaurants and menus
discover meanings of words

> "When I was in the hospital [as a nurse], we had a lady that couldn't speak any English, and I had learned to ask if she was in pain, and then I knew little words like 'where.' We were able to communicate. I have found also people that were bilingual who really get a kick out of my trying to communicate with them in their language." (DV:NELDA)

> "I've been able to use my Spanish with a penpal. And that's not a requirement for class. He lives in Mexico. We write back and forth with the help of my Spanish teacher." (LL:MARY)

> "I've used the Latin as a springboard to English, because it has a great deal

of impact on English words, on English syntax; from that standpoint I've used it. I've also used it in terms of going back and being able to understand and dig deeper into some of the Latin works." (WP:FLO)

"I use them when I go to foreign movies, and it's much more helpful than just being able to read the subtitles. It has caused me to be open to the possibilities of traveling in areas where English would not be the native language. I think it's lessened my fear of going into an area and trying to converse with someone who would not have a familiarity with [the English] language." (HM:NANCY)

"Upon graduating from college, I was employed by the Banco Interamericano de Desarrollo, and I worked in archives as a record clerk. My job was to read all the correspondence, communication, and documents of this bank, which were published in Portuguese, French, Spanish, and English, and to decide where the file clerks should file them so they could be easily retrieved. I had never studied Portuguese, but having studied French and Spanish, I was able to read Portuguese, and figure out the subject of the letter." (SB:LINDA)

"I used them in graduate school. I used them in my job as an analyst for the State Department. Currently, as head of the library's department of literatures and languages, I use them all the time, for reference questions, to check words, and to translate letters; I constantly use them." (WP: DOROTHY)

More than half of the persons interviewed found that they had used their second-language skills in meaningful ways. At least half of those responding cited travel as a use for their language skills. Others mentioned reading and foreign films. Half of those responding also found that they had used their language skills in other ways, including informal communication, correspondence, and research, as well as job-related activities. (Note: Based on items 10-15 on the questionnaire.)

F Evaluation of second-language study

Those interviewed were asked if they were happy with the languages they had chosen to study; how they had chosen these languages; and whether if they had it to do over again, they would choose the same language(s). Twenty-seven respondents stated that they were pleased with the languages they had chosen to study; only five responded negatively to this question. The reasons for having chosen a particular language to study were as numerous as the respondents.

Interest in language study:

- good foundation for any language
- challenge
- a really romantic language
- Chinese is the basis of Japanese

Influence of family:

- language of my childhood
- encouraged and/or required to take a foreign language in high school by my mother/father
- I took French since my family had all taken German and had terrible accents
- Latin because I was Catholic, attending Catholic school
- Hebrew because I was attending Hebrew school

Influence of teacher:

- Switched to French in senior high school because those teachers were better

Influence of travel:

- Japanese as a result of the Rotary exchange program
- easy access to travel in the countries using this language
- because the majority of nations have some Spanish-speaking people

Influence of schedule:

- only language offered in my school
- because Italian wasn't offered
- most convenient at the time
- preferred it to others offered

Other reasons given:

- prime target of language study for strategic purposes after Sputnik
- socially acceptable
- seemed to have a great affinity [for it]
- some for practical reasons some for pleasure
- easy to learn
- to talk to Persian people I know
- required to take a foreign language in college by requirements

Would those interviewed choose the same language(s) to study again? Twenty-one said yes, seven said no. Explanations again varied widely:

> "I think I would have chosen a more classical [language], Latin or Greek, to learn more prefixes and suffixes [for technical language]. I think that would have been more helpful, actually, even though I do enjoy the French." (VK:MAUREEN)

> "I would probably take the same courses. What I'd do differently is to

stick with one or the other, or both. I think that I just scratched the surface, and a year in each of the languages was just an introduction, really, and the thing that I would change would be to study over a longer period of time, a more continuous period." (SB:DOROTHY)

"Some [I took] for practical reasons and some for pleasure. I'd probably add Chinese, [because of a] fascination with the culture, and I think the language is one of the most important ways of getting access to the culture." (HM:ILZE)

"I'm very pleased with my decision. I took my first foreign language because it was the only one offered in my school, but, at the same time, it would have been the language that I would have chosen anyway. Because of the impact of the German language on the community in which I grew up and also because of the then still strong impact that World War II, particularly the European theatre, had made upon a lot of people in the community.

The reason why I began studying Russian is because at the time in American history, shortly after Sputnik, it was considered a prime target of language study for stragetic purposes as well for cultural reasons." (HM:MICHAEL)

Reasons for having discontinued language study at some point during their education varied from external factors, such as scheduling problems and changing schools, to internal factors more governed by the individual's attitudes and decision making based on personal experiences in second-language classes.

Influence of course content and/or teacher:

- I stopped studying French because I was infuriated by conjugation tables and spelling system
- discontinued after one year, very dissatisfied with methods of teacher
- bored; picky, and grammatical
- teacher was terrible

Priorities changed or other external influences:

- discontinued after two years required for journalism major
- time and other activities
- chose marriage over graduate degree at Middlebury
- lack of time or opportunity to continue learning
- graduated from college
- met language requirement
- moved
- majored in other subjects
- scheduling problems
- after two years I switched from French to Spanish, because I'd not yet had my fill of learning foreign languages

"Four years straight of the language was enough for me at that time. Sophomore year was a very difficult year, and I needed a rest, and I wanted to be able to sit back a little bit, instead of cramming every night, which is what I did." (JB:JANICE)

"At the time, because I was a kid, I just didn't see any point in continuing. Now I wish I had." (DV:NELDA)

The reasons mentioned for liking or disliking second-language study revealed that students who liked language study found it "challenging," a "pleasure," gave them a "good feeling," they even "enjoyed the structure of languages." Those who disliked language study included those who felt put on the spot when called upon to recite, "disliked being spoken to [and having to respond]."

Interviewees liked:

- conversations
- culture, so wanted to study the language to go over there
- excitement of new literature and people of new culture
- the understanding
- creative writing, enjoy speaking and listening
- class taught completely in target language, cultural activities, and speakers
- being able to speak in more than one language
- ability to communicate with more people makes me interested in language study
- diversity

They disliked:

- not enough culture and current events
- basics, but I see need for learning grammar rules, and irregular verbs
- I think in English, and have much difficulty thinking in a foreign language.

"I like foreign language study because of the pleasure and the good feelings it gives me trying to express myself in a way that is culturally and verbally unlike that which I grew up with." (HM:MICHAEL)

"I think it's challenging to learn another language, and it helps you to understand other people better." (JB:MARIE)

"I like studying a language because I'm the type of person who likes to take things apart and put them back together again. I enjoyed the semester of linguistics I had. . . . What I didn't like, was [that] at the time I was studying languages, there was very littie audiovisual, and it was just like another class; it wasn't fun like it could have been." (SB:LINDA)

"Learning something new and . . . finding out something about another culture is always interesting to me. There are times when the language itself is also fascinating because you see so many similarities between a given language and English. But there are also some frustrations in some of the rote drill and the grammar review; although they are very necessary they're not always fascinating to do." (HM:NANCY)

"I found it extremely difficult if spoken to. Someone speaking Spanish speaks very rapidly and I found it hard to follow. I could read it without too much difficulty. I could write it, simple Spanish, without too much difficulty. But the listening process, the communicating process, speaking with someone who understood Spanish very well was difficult for me because they spoke in such a rapid rate. That I didn't enjoy. Again, the thought process I had to go through, I thoroughly enjoyed. In a sense, it was like playing chess, exercise for the mind." (VK:DENIS)

"I would say I enjoy studying other languages because it is a very challenging endeavor of education. You can truly use what you learn, very actively, as you can't really do consistently in other fields of education. I would say the most rewarding thing about studying another language is being able to see the progress so vividly." (SB:LANCE)

"I like my particular language because it's something I'm good at; it makes me feel good to do it. I think it's important for me, for everybody, to be able to understand another language, just for the sake of better understanding the world around them." (MP:CAROL)

"Why I dislike it, I guess, if you're really not committed or really don't have the time, you just will never pick the language up. It's something you really have to have a commitment to. It's very time-consuming." (MP: THERESA)

"I like it by going there and studying it and knowing the people; that's the nicest way to learn it. I'd love to take a month and be immersed in another culture, whatever the culture was. I'm sure I would love it, if they were reasonable. I hate to look words up; I think if I had one of those computers nowadays, the little computer translators, it might make a world of difference." (JPB:WG)

"I like it all. You're really learning. I feel when I'm in French class, you learn something everyday, where in some of your other classes, it's . . ." (JP:SHERRY)

"I like foreign language study because I feel excited to see things from a new perspective by reading literature in another language, and by talking to people in another culture." (HM:ILZE)

"Just being able to speak in more than one language. It's something I've wanted to do, and never been able to conquer." (LC:THOMAS)

> "I like the culture, so I want to learn the language to go over there. I want to go on the [Concordia Language Village] Brittany bike tour." (DL: ERIK)

> "I like it because it is something new to learn. The language must, I believe, have an effect on the people of the country. I would like someday to live in another country." (MM:VICKI)

Not surprisingly for language educators, but delightfully supporting a long-held contention, the greatest influence perceived by former students on their attitude toward second-language study was the teacher; this teacher was not necessarily the first language teacher, but one who made language study special. Also mentioned as influencing attitudes toward language study were the text, cultural aspects, the approach, exchange programs, trips to the target culture, a personal sense of accomplishment, and the influence of mother's or father's interest in language learning.

> "The teacher. I think that holds true for any class. The prof makes the class, no matter what the topic. Personal, friendly, fair. I really appreciate getting praise when I've done a good job. I can remember instances with various language teachers that I felt really good when my test paper came back with the word "Excellent" with exclamation marks on it. That's a lot nicer than just seeing a number at the top. Ability to tell stories, partly humor, just interesting kinds of things about the culture, and their experiences." (LL:PAULA)

> "For French, the greatest influence had to be the teacher. For Japanese, I wouldn't be studying Japanese right now if I hadn't gone to Japan [through Rotary] ; it's just as simple as that." (MP:CAROL)

> "It was the teacher probably in the high school, and that's because at that point the materials and the approaches were not all that different. . . . The German teacher brought something from her own experiences, and her own background in addition to the academic kinds of things that were discussed from the textbook. The textbooks as I remember were good in both the French and German class, but I guess it would be the individual style and experience of the instructor that made the difference." (SB: DOROTHY)

> "I would say the things that have affected my opinions about foreign language the most have been my trip abroad, to Mexico, and putting my abilities into active use. I think that was the most rewarding; [it] had the most profound effect on my attitudes." (SB:LANCE)

> "I think I have two people that I can thank. Number 1 is my major professor in college. She really, without pushing me, made me enjoy and be curious and feel good about what I was doing. Secondly, my father . . . spoke seven languages, and his attitude was if you go to a country—and he traveled extensively—learn the language, because you can't communicate with the people without the language. And so I think I may have received a facility for languages from him, and also a love and respect for languages." (SB:LINDA)

> "It was a second language, but it was one that was relatively easy. I could see my own success. I simply have a sense of accomplishment that I got from learning to read a chapter in a book that was in Spanish, or learning to write a paragraph in Spanish. And, of course, when I could listen to a quiz question in Spanish and write the answer in Spanish, that accomplishment was very satisfying." (VK:DENIS)

In evaluating their second-language study, respondents were generally pleased with the languages they had chosen to study. A number mentioned that, in retrospect, they would like to have started language study earlier, thereby studying the language for a longer period of time and increasing their fluency. Others would like to have studied additional languages. Reasons for terminating language study after a year or two varied from negative classroom learning experiences to completion of requirements to changing priorities and time constraints. Students liked courses in which they learned, for example, to use the language and in which culture played a large role in the curriculum. They disliked the lack of these two elements and overemphasis on grammatical issues. Respondents described the substantial influence that the classroom teacher had on their attitudes toward second-language study. (Note: Based on items 22–24, and 27 on the questionnaire.)

Summary and conclusions

We as second-language educators need to examine where we have succeeded, where the profession is not meeting the needs of our students, where the public is perhaps uninformed, and what needs to be done for the future. The persons interviewed shared their attitudes toward second languages, toward the people and cultures of those languages, and toward second-language study in the American classroom. Several themes are repeated throughout.

Where have we succeeded? Interviewees who took languages as high school and/or university students *have* developed a broad world view. Many enjoy using the second language in travel and in communication with non-English speakers. Some recognize the use of second languages in their career choices.

Others have found benefits in expanded linguistic abilities from using the native language. They *do* appreciate the multiplicity of cultures in the world. They *do* see the worth in second-language study.

Where is the profession not meeting the needs? Goals set for a given year of study still often appear unattainable; those responding to this survey acknowledge that two years of study only scratches the surface, but they are still disappointed that they are unable to use what they have learned even in casual conversation or in magazine reading. Students may prefer limited goals, such as speaking or reading, while we continue to emphasize the four-skill approach. Perhaps we need to consider surveying individual classes, to give direction for revising the emphasis of the curriculum where adaptation can occur.

Another desire on the part of students appears to be cultural, that the language be put in context of the people who speak that language, that there be less teaching of the grammar itself and more emphasis on language use. Respondents in this study overwhelmingly named culture as one of the most needed and liked aspects of the second-language classroom. At the same time, they noted that usually less than 20 percent of class time during their language study was devoted to the study of the people and the culture. We must increase emphasis on the practical use of the language in studying the culture, the traditions and customs, current political stituations and daily life, rather than spending 80 percent of class time on grammatical constructions. Students who remember only doing grammar drills do not continue language study any longer than required.

Where is the public uninformed? Apparently, the public is still accepting the notion that a second language can be learned in two years of classroom study. Students are disappointed, disillusioned, and even irate at the school's lack of success in meeting this goal. The public appears also to continue to contend that second-language study is only for the elite, yet respondents in this survey, representing a range of backgrounds and abilities, appear to have benefited from second-language study without exception. An argument can certainly be made for second-language experiences for everyone. Finally, the public appears to continue to separate second-language study from the mainstream of education. It is imperative that changes occur to influence these public opinions.

What needs to be done? Those interviewed, representing a range of individuals who varied geographically, economically, and educationally, called for (1) more emphasis on culture in the classroom setting; (2) more attempt on the part of the teacher and the profession to set reasonable and attainable goals; (3) more communication of these goals to the parents and the community; (4) more use of native speakers within the classroom, in order to give students practice in communication, in responding to varied accents and dialect, as well as to make them aware of the opportunities for using the second language at home, in the community, as well as an enhancement for travel; and (5) greater awareness on the part of our teachers in the career possibilities available for those graduates interested in using their second-language skills. The worth and success of second-language study is cogently summarized by a high school student in Arkansas.

"If enough people enjoy languages, the public as a whole will encourage the study of foreign languages and cultures. It is one thing to realize the importance of the nation becoming aware of the world and another for an individual to use his own time and energies in learning a foreign language. Pleasure will inspire such devotion." (RS:NANCY)

Interview Questionnaire

1. What benefits can you see from foreign-language study, for yourself or for your family?
2. What is the importance of knowing a foreign language?
3. What does a foreign language have to contribute to your profession? to your life? to your world view?
4. What would you like to be able to do or say in a foreign language?
5. What is your attitude toward programs which bring foreign students or persons to the United States, such as American Field Service, or other exchange programs?
6. Do people you know speak a foreign language?
   Would you like to be able to speak with them?
7. Do you hear foreign languages spoken? Where? By whom?
8. Have you traveled in countries where languages are spoken other than English?
   What was your perception of the attitudes of the natives toward you as a speaker of English?
   What was your attitude toward them?
9. Have you ever studied a second language? How many years? How long ago? (Note: If this answer is *no*, this is the end of the interview.)
10. What parts of the courses in second-language study were most enjoyable? e.g., reading? writing? understanding when you were spoken to?
11. What is your attitude toward the teachers you had in second-language classes?
12. What kinds of teachers did you have? How well trained were they? Were they dynamic? enthusiastic?
13. What did you learn in the foreign-language class?
14. What did you do in this class?
15. In your language study, how much focus was on the language? and how much was on the people, or on the culture?
16. Can you see any relevance in studying the language together with the culture related to that language? Explain.
17. Has your attitude toward people who speak foreign languages changed since studying a second language? How?
18. Has your attitude toward foreign cultures changed since studying a second language? How?

19. If you studied the foreign language for the purpose of travel, did it help in your travels?
    To what extent did you use the language?
    What was the purpose of your travel, e.g., vacation, business?
20. After completing your second-language study, have you ever read a newspaper, magazine, or book in that language?
21. After completing your second-language study, have you ever seen a movie in that language?
22. Are you happy about having chosen to study the particular foreign language which you studied?
    Why did you take this one?
    If you were to do it again, would you choose the same foreign language? Why? or Why not?
23. If you discontinued a foreign language at some point, why did this occur?
24. What makes you like or dislike foreign-language study?
25. Have you ever used your foreign-language skills? If so, how?
26. Whether or not you have ever used your foreign-language skills, was it enriching to have studied the language?
27. What was the greatest influence on your attitude toward your foreign-language class? Was it the teacher? the text? the classroom approach? a personal experience, e.g., a trip abroad? or something else?

Thank you for your willingness to participate in this venture.

Interviewers and Reference		*Institution*	*Location*
Jean-Pierre Berwald	JPB	University of Massachusetts	Amherst, MA
Jane Bourque	JB	Stratford Public Schools	Stratford, CT
Samual Butler	SB	Cherry Creek High School	Denver, CO
Margaret Clark*	MC	University of Arkansas	Fayetteville, AR
Linda Crawford	LC	Elk River High School	Elk River, MN
Victor Kerns	VK	Telstar, Inc.	St. Paul, MN
Dale Lange	DL	University of Minnesota	Minneapolis, MN
Linda Leonard	LL	University of Minnesota	Minneapolis, MN
Stephen Levy	SL	John Dewey High School	Brooklyn, NY
Mary Lou Matthews	MM	King William High School	King William, VA
Hugh McGuigan	HM	University of Minnesota	Minneapolis, MN
Pamela Myers	PM	University of Minnesota	Minneapolis, MN
Walter Pederson	WP	University of Minnesota	Minneapolis, MN
June Phillips	JP	Indiana University of Pennsylvania	Indiana, PA
Renate Schulz*	RS	University of Arkansas	Fayetteville, AR
Mary Spiegelberg	MS	University of Minnesota	Minneapolis, MN
Donald Volk	DV	Veteran's Administration Hospital	La Jolla, CA

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Second language experiences for everyone

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Introduction: The problem of justifying second-language study

This chapter addresses the basic issue of the possible benefits of foreign language study for the high school and college population at large. The seriousness of this question no longer remains only in foreign language teaching circles. The attention of the federal government has been directed to an investigation of the cases for or against second-language acquisition by all American students. When the moment arrives to accept, reject, or modify the final report of the President's Commission on Foreign Language and International Studies, our work will be simplified if we have already clarified the framework of rationales within which we are operating.

A review of the literature pertaining to building a favorable case for foreign language study reveals that historically, the profession has responded to this challenge primarily in terms of one solution–improvement: improvement in language-learning strategies, improvement in instructional materials, improvement in teacher education. For example, in 1910 when foreign language enrollments took their first plunge, the direct method of language instruction was suggested as an innovative replacement for the nineteenth-century grammar-translation approach. Despite this advocacy of a different language-acquisition model, enrollment figures continued to decline into the 1920s and 1930s. Once again the profession reassessed its position in terms of objectives and techniques

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and came up with the reading method. This endorsement was to no avail, however, with respect to the size of our clientele. Enrollment figures continued their downward trend, reaching catastrophic proportions in 1955 with only 20.6 percent of all high school students enrolled in a foreign language class (Simon and Grant, 68). This particular downward trend stimulated still another reappraisal of teaching techniques and training which led to the emergence of the audiolingual methodology. A few years of increasing enrollments followed this pedagogical switch as federal funds supplemented sagging school budgets. Yet by the early 1970s, enrollments began to dwindle again, and foreign-language specialists across the country started another review of teaching strategies. Some of the latest strategies to grow out of this assessment are instruction in communicative competence in addition to linguistic proficiency, career-related foreign language courses, and personalized, or humanistic foreign language teaching techniques.

Interestingly enough, in spite of all these attempts to convince students that we can teach foreign languages effectively, the reality of shrinking enrollments has not yet been alleviated. The difficulty of securing a stable position for our programs in high schools and colleges remains with us today. Fewer than one in every four high school students now studies a foreign language in school; a recent estimate is 15 percent of the total high school population. Only 10 percent of all colleges and universities now include foreign language proficiency among their requirements for admission, and only 61 percent make language study mandatory for a liberal arts degree (Shiels et al., 67). In 1968, U.S. universities and colleges enrolled 1,073,097 students in modern foreign language courses. By the fall of 1978, the total had dropped to 883,222. (These figures come from Modern Language Association studies funded by the U.S. Office of Education.) The most disturbing factor is that deterioration in the popularity of our programs has continued in the face of vigorous improvement and modernization of instruction. With respect to this pedagogical progress, a 1979 ACTFL position paper (Scebold, 64) reads: "There is strong evidence that we are closer to our skill objectives in foreign language education than ever before" (p. 127).

The scope of this chapter

Given the intractability and the persistent need for supporting a case for second-language study, this chapter will examine the cases that, historically, have been offered for foreign language instruction in the American high school and college. The implications of these cases will be analyzed in terms of their effects on the pedagogical organization and acceptance of foreign languages as school subjects. In the hope of uncovering some valuable clues as to why the rise and fall in popularity of this subject, this chapter will investigate the three major cases that have been offered by the foreign language teaching profession and by other educators, in the past and present, as legitimate reasons for studying a foreign language: the cognitive development case; the utilitarian case; and the cultural case. Each of these cases will be analyzed according to the following questions:

1 What do we know about the case, i.e., from what educational traditions have the respective cases arisen?
2 What contemporary versions of the case exist today, and how can certain activities in the classroom contribute to the attainment of its goals?
3 What do we still need to find out about the legitimacy of each case, i.e., research questions to pursue?

It should be recognized from the onset that these three cases are more than arbitrarily assigned categories. Rather, Krug (36) affirms that they have deep historical roots and have long been used by various educators to defend foreign language instruction in a formal school setting.

The cognitive development case

Cognitive development, a major representative approach to curriculum theory in the American school experience, has a long and controversial history. In discussing the theory of cognitive development, one is first confronted with an array of definitions from "training the mind" to "exercising mental faculties" to "refining correct habits of thinking" to "learning how to learn." However, a thread of general agreement lies behind these various definitions; that is, they all reflect a psychological view that humans possess certain mental capacities which can be trained to operate more efficiently, as well as the philosophical conviction that such mental development constitutes the chief purpose of school.

What do we know?: The historical basis of the cognitive case

From the time of the Greeks, the view has intermittently come to the forefront that the primary justification of education is the development of mental powers–the theory of mental discipline. By the nineteenth century, most educators agreed that the chief aim of education was the training of the various faculties of the students: perception, imagination, memory, reason, and will power (Kolesnik, 35). This relation between mental training and the development of the isolated faculties of the mind has often been explained as a gymnastic theory of mind, a theory drawn from an analogy with the muscles of the body. It was thought that just as the arm may by exercise develop strength which may then be used for many purposes, so the mind and its various faculties could be properly trained; for example, by increasing the memorization of Latin or Greek verse, mental disciplinarians posited that the memory faculty would be improved in general.

Thus, the doctrine of mental discipline, as conceptualized in the nineteenth century, was the view that all learning was general in its effects and resulted in increased intellectual powers in meeting any situation, even one removed from the conditions under which the learning took place. With respect to formalized schooling, a classical tradition of mental discipline held that the mind could be strengthened and trained by pedagogical activities that focused on Latin, Greek, and mathematics, which by their very form contributed to the development of reason, observation, perception, feeling, and willing. To summarize the overwhelming popularity of assigning mental disciplinary benefits to foreign language study at the close of the nineteenth century, one can turn to the 1898 Modern Language Association Committee of Twelve Report (45), a committee appointed by the National Education Association to consider the position of foreign languages in American schools:

> The study of a language other than the mother tongue requires the learner to compare and to discriminate, thus training the analytic and reflective faculties; the effort to express himself in the unfamiliar idiom, to translate from it into his own, makes him attentive to the meaning of words, gives a new insight into the possible resources of expression, and cultivates precision of thought and statement. Incidently, the memory is strengthened and the power of study application is developed (pp. 7-8).

Interestingly enough, foreign language enrollments prospered throughout the nineteenth century during which foreign language teachers argued that their subject had disciplinary benefits for all students, regardless of their future life destination. Statistics suggest that there was even a substantial increase in enrollments in the decade from 1890 to 1900 (Commissioner of Education, 16). One might be tempted to ascribe this increase to the pressure of college-entrance requirements. However, as Krug (37) has indicated, the proportion of public high school students listed as preparing for college actually declined from 14.4 percent to 10.8 percent during this period. Thus, the public appeal for foreign language study during the mental disciplinary reign did not rely solely on foreign language study as college preparatory subjects, as is so often erroneously assumed. Rather, this kind of disciplinary argument appears to have appealed favorably to both high school and college students.

Contemporary versions and activities of the cognitive case

Since the nineteenth century there have been many attempts to undermine the primal position that mental discipline occupied during the founding years of the American public school system. The two experiments most often cited as having discredited the disciplinary case are those of Edward Thorndike: "The Influence of Improvement in One Mental Function Upon the Efficiency of Other Functions," 1901 (74), and "Mental Discipline in High School Studies," 1924 (75).

The interpretations of Thorndike's work and subsequent empirical studies dealing with transfer of general learning have been argued over a long period of time. As recently as 1970, Bruner (9) referred to Thorndike's investigations as "quirky little studies" which he felt proved nothing more than that human beings, when asked to memorize idiotic material in one situation, will tend not to retain this idiotic information in still another situation. Yet despite Bruner's reservations and those of other psychologists, the effect of Thorndike's conclusions on the negligible disciplinary benefits of foreign language study has led many to believe that this case can no longer be supported to any extent. At the very least, twentieth-century educators, foreign language teachers included, have maintained a generally suspicious attitude towards the whole notion of possible mental disciplinary benefits through the study of particular subject matter.

As an example of this contemporary skepticism toward any attempt to build a case for foreign language study on disciplinary grounds, Carroll (10) wrote that as an educational psychologist he could not support an argument for a foreign language which was based purely on disciplinary reasons. Even granting that the experimental attacks on the doctrine beginning with the studies of Thorndike in 1901 might have been carried too far, he insists that the mental discipline case is "one of last resort" (p. 91). In fact, he warns that we must be extremely cautious in accepting arguments for the study of a second language that are based on the theory of automatic transfer of learning.

While there is ample ground for heeding Carroll's warning, the impression should not be left that the tradition of assigning disciplinary value to second-language acquisition has been entirely abandoned by today's researchers. Although limited in extent, evidence does exist that points to contemporary interest in investigating the relation between general intellectual or cognitive development and foreign language work. Basically, from dissatisfaction with portions of the classical nineteenth-century mental disciplinarian case, newer ideas have emerged concerning what training the mind can mean and how, we, as teachers, may stimulate this kind of education.

It is important to note that although today's advocates of cognitive development through the study of certain school subjects still defend a form of mental discipline, they no longer subscribe to a faculty theory of mind. In fact, they have completely rejected a psychology that speaks of independent compartments of the mind. They believe, rather, that the workings of memory, reason, observation, and creativity are interrelated. Neither do current supporters advocate a faculty theory of mind that suggested that exercise of the isolated "muscles" of the mind in general would give immediate control of every situation in life. In other words, for the cognitive psychologist, it simply does not follow that the high school or college graduate is fully equipped in virtue of his or her study of foreign languages to raise a family or to conduct a business operation. In these activities, as in other life situations, contemporary mental disciplinarians believe that it is necessary for the mind to be well equipped with knowledge in addition to being well trained in how to learn.

Thus, having abandoned the theory of faculty psychology, some contemporary researchers feel that at least a modest case can be put forth to the public in favor of the disciplinary or cognitive benefits of our subject field. In particular, a recent ACTFL publication (1) lists these benefits as: improvement in first language skills via foreign language study; development of problem-solving techniques; and stimulation of creative thinking and flexibility. The question at hand is what kinds of activities within the foreign language classroom will maximize the occurrence of these benefits?

Since a variation of the mental disciplinary case has only recently been resurrected, strategies for developing the various components of the human intellect remain mostly in the domain of speculation. Certainly, there appears to be no need for the profession to return to the grammar-translation method which was associated with the classical mental discipline theory. For, to many in the teaching profession, this approach did little more than render modern language teaching inoperative; it formalized drill work of often deadening content, and it disproportionately emphasized linguistic abstraction and correctness at the beginning levels of instruction.

Improvement in first language skills

Although research data still remains inconclusive with respect to the transfer of training between languages, several research projects can be cited that suggest that learning a foreign language helps students in understanding and using English. Vygotsky (80) affirms that his research points to the notion that a young child who studies a second language can learn to see his or her native language as one particular system among many, to view its phenomenon under more general categories, which in turn leads to awareness of unconscious linguistic operations such as causal, conditional, or temporal relations. He writes:

> In one's native language, the primitive aspects of speech are acquired before the more complex ones. The latter presuppose some awareness of phonetic, grammatical, and syntactical forms. With a foreign language, the higher order forms develop before spontaneous fluent speech . . . The child's strong points in a foreign language are his weak points in his native language and vice versa (pp. 109-10).

The importance of this research statement can be tied to one of the underlying concerns of the popular "return to basics" attitude of the 1970s. As stressed in *Foreign Languages and the Basics* (1), the concern of educators, parents, and students for improvement in first-language skills is one aspect of a basic education to which our subject area may contribute. In this publication, over ten empirical studies are listed that suggest possible benefits in native language skills from the study of a second language: increase in English vocabulary improvement in reading comprehension and increase in speed reading. Also, in a 1978 ERIC/CLL article, Eddy (22) examines the research pertinent to this issue. Although results remain inconclusive, some studies done in Latin FLES programs show that specifically designed Latin curricula appear to improve

English Arts test scores. The same has held true in some cases for French and Spanish FLES students. Furthermore, in an editorial in the *Wall Street Journal*, Royster (61) states that a recent study indicated that while the national mean verbal score on the Scholastic Aptitude Test has been dropping, the score of students who have had some Latin actually went up 23 points.

These research reports lend strength to the argument that instruction in foreign languages can activate large areas of consciousness, awareness, and abstraction, in addition to imparting the knowledge of the subject and its specific skills.

As for how the teacher can actually stimulate positive transfer of learning between languages, a bulletin of the Minnesota Department of Education (72) suggests that certain understandings be stressed in the classroom so that students can make generalizations about how languages operate. Some of these areas are:

1 The Sound System
  The students know that:
  a every language has characteristic sounds, rhythm, intonation . . .;
  b the use of a second language requires the recognition and production of some unfamiliar sounds or combination of sounds.
2 Sound Symbol Association
  Students know that the relationship of written-symbols to oral symbols differs from language to language.
3 Vocabulary, Idioms, and Cognates
  Students have a knowledge of vocabulary, idioms, cognates, and the combination of these in the second language and others with which they may be in contact.
4 Structures
  a Verbs
    1 Students know how verbs operate in both their own and the second language . . .
5 Agreement
  a Students know that the language often requires agreement of certain elements.
6 Syntax
  Students know that the order of words in a phrase, clause, or sentence may affect meaning.
7 Orthography
  Students know basic rules of capitalization, punctuation, spelling, and their roles in written communication (pp. 11-12).

If these outcomes are to be realized, then some contrastive analysis between the target language and the native one needs to be included in phonetic work, in vocabulary activities, and in the introduction of syntactical rules. However, Fischer (25) warns that attention must still be directed to the overuse of contrastive analysis to the point of interference with the second-language acquisition process.

Problem-solving

The second area to which foreign language study appears to contribute is in the cognitive domain of problem-solving. Again, certain contemporary research points to this contribution. Carton (12) reports that junior high school students of foreign languages could make extensive use of interlingual cues (derivation, loan words, cognates) as they try to figure out meaning. He concludes that while many learners enter language situations with some degree of inferencing skills, continued emphasis on this skill makes language study a type of "problem-solving and the entire breadth of a student's experience and knowledge may be brought to bear on the process of language" (pp. 57-58). Carrying Carton's conclusions further, Jarvis (32) indicates that one particular kind of problem that foreign language study touches is that of learning how to cope in an unfamiliar surrounding. It is true that in a beginning foreign language class, the student is stripped of familiar cues. Everything that is most personally the student's–a way of speaking and thinking–is set aside. The student must learn to cope with this drastic change, a process that occurs in life situations because of rapid technological and social changes. A teaching strategy that Jarvis suggests for putting students in a direct encounter with the unfamiliar involves asking the students to telephone a native speaker to obtain certain information. After the students have made the call, they can be asked:

1 How did they feel as they dialed the number?
2 How did they feel when the person said something they did not understand?
3 What did they do to solve that problem?
4 Were there other strategies they might have used? (p. 109.)

By asking and answering such questions, the students can examine how they felt and how they coped with the situation. Other sources for such problem-solving activities are Simon et al. (69), and Simon and Kurschenbaum (70).

Creativity

Still a third way in which foreign language study seems to enhance the intellectual potential of students is in the area of creativity. A source in which research data is cited that tends to confirm this is a 1977 article titled "Second Language Study and Intellectual Development" (Hancock, 29). Summarized in this essay are several classic research projects that lend support to a relationship between second-language study and verbal creativity (Lambert and Tucker, 38; Landry, 39; and Peale and Lambert, 53). Whereas Lambert's studies dealt with bilingual education, Landry's treated cognitive development and foreign language acquisition and is therefore more relevant for the foreign language teacher's purposes. His investigation of the relationship of second-language learning and verbal creativity implied that experience with two languages at the elementary school level has significant positive effects upon creative functioning.

According to Birckbichler (5), there has been a renewed interest in promoting activities that stimulate creative production, in part due to the realization that verbal intelligence is merely one component of the complex structure of the intellect. She describes various activities based on Guilford's (28), model of the intellect that emphasize thinking in a variety of directions, the basis of creative production. These kinds of creative or divergent production tasks can be guided, or structured, and free. The former are regarded as a preparatory phase in the language-learning process. The latter are more appropriate for the intermediate and advanced levels. A sample list follows of a few possible divergent tasks that can be implemented in the classroom for oral and written communication, as well as for the stimulation of the student's creativity. They all share a focus on multiple rather than single correct answers; they provide for original and creative responses and allow the students to see the variety of responses that can be generated from a limited linguistic framework.

Structured creativity exercises

1 *Open-ended completion items*
Students complete sentences by choosing one or more of the options or by creating an answer of their own.

2 *Multiple-choice items*
Students are asked a personal question and then told to circle the response that corresponds to what they would do in that situation or to create answers of their own.

3 *Kernel sentence*
Students are given a kernel sentence in the target language, such as "I go to the movies," and they are asked to change the sentence in as many ways as possible though slot substitutions of the noun, verb, and prepositional phrase.

4 *Cued dialogues*
Students are asked to write out complete dialogues using the brief cues supplied by teachers; such as characters or setting.

These are but a few examples. Many more activities can be found in Allen and Valette (3), Christensen (14), Jarvis et al. (33), and Rivers (59).

Unanswered research questions

At this point it must be emphasized that a strong case for the cognitive benefits of second-language study cannot be validated due to the limited extent of research. Indeed current data comes mainly from research on bilingualism and intellect, from elementary school programs in the modern foreign languages, and from elementary school Latin programs. Before we could possibly assert that general mental development is a direct result of second-language study, there is a great need to conduct similar longitudinal research in the high school and college. Some of the most basic questions that need to be investigated are:

1 To what extent does comparison of material in the target language with the native one interfere with developing skills in the second language? To what extent does it facilitate that development?
2 To what extent does research in bilingual education correlate with foreign language instruction?
3 Is a language "learning set" something that is acquired? That is, if it is true that learning a second language facilitates the learning of a third, then it would naturally follow that something akin to transfer of training does occur.
4 What kinds of teaching strategies positively affect students' scores of creative functioning as measured by divergent thinking tests like the Torrance Test of Creative Thinking?

Although many problems still remain before we can substantiate the modern mental disciplinary case for American students, a refusal to acknowledge encouraging empirical evidence and to act upon it could prove to be lamentable. For, this case welcomes *all* students into our classes, regardless of their presumed life destinations. This open-enrollment policy has not always followed suit within the framework of a utilitarian rationale.

The utilitarian case

For those who chose to advocate a utilitarian case for second language study in high school or in college, the primary benefits of instruction are not derived from the nature of language itself, that is, its form serving to discipline the mind or its contents carrying cultural import. Rather, the chief benefits of second-language study are found in its practical use in the world of careers, commerce, travel, or the national defense. In general, utilitarian or practical school courses are designed to give students specific skills that they may perform with success in certain adult life activities. The relation of such courses to future life activities is in most cases direct and striking: a student enrolls in a course in Spanish in order to hold eventually a position that probably could not have been secured without this training.

One version of a utilitarian case requires that the school assume direct responsibility for preparing students definitely and specifically for future roles in society. For the utilitarian-minded educator, it is not enough that a subject such as foreign languages may contribute to conceptual and analytical development in the learner; subjects must be laden with knowledge that has demonstrable relevance to the actual life activities in which people engage outside the school and for which the school can definitively prepare them to perform efficiently. The conceptualization of the school as an agency primarily existing to serve the practical needs of the students is a pedagogical doctrine that has gained wide acceptance in American education since the turn of the twentieth century.

What do we know?: The historical basis of the utilitarian case

As the twentieth century dawned, controversy settled around whether mental training or information was the proper object of schooling. Particularly during the second decade of the twentieth century, pressure outside the schools mounted for educational reform as crime, corruption, and graft were on the increase. One manifestation of this pressure was the demand for greater skills at all occupational levels. Groups of educators and citizens combined to insist that public education make vocational training more generally available. This movement for vocational education gained momentum in the new century, and in 1917 it received major federal assistance in the form of the Smith-Hughes Act. The spirit of reform that pervaded American society demanded an explicit social mission for the school. One expression of this spirit was education for social control; the other was education for social services. Krug (37) suggests that they both came together in one slogan–*education for social efficiency.*

While this slogan has no precise definition, it can be acknolwedged that its proponents were hostile to the academic high school of the past with its emphasis on foreign language study and mathematics. Spurred by disapproval of courses regarded as purely academic for the college-bound and inadequate in satisfying the emergent life needs of American youth, curriculum revision became a widespread high school enterprise in the 1920s through the 1940s.

In particular, the Cardinal Principles Report of 1918 (NEA, 48) was the stimulus for the adoption of a utilitarian-framed secondary school curriculum. Of interest today, the philosophy of education that underlies many contemporary high schools still reflects the seven major aims of education as outlined in the Cardinal Principals Report. This parallelism is demonstrated in the following list.

1918 Aims of the Cardinal Principles Report (48)	*1979 Aims of the Dekalb County School* (20)
Health	Good Physical, Emotional, and Mental Health
Command of Fundamental Processes (reading and arithmetic)	Communication Skills
Worthy-Home Membership	Character Education (acceptance of responsibility)
Vocation	Skills, Knowledge, and Attitudes for the World of Work
Citizenship	Citizenship Education
Worthy Use of Leisure Time	Habits and Attitudes (worthy use of leisure time, good manners)
Ethical Character	Character Education (ability to distinguish between right and wrong)

An important ramification of the curriculum revision along utilitarian lines that predominated in American secondary education between 1918 and Sputnik was that foreign languages, the major ingredient of the classical mental disciplinary curriculum, were denied a place in the general required curriculum for all high school students being replaced by "practical" courses on family life, social studies, mental health, and vocational training or manual arts. Foreign languages were relegated to a position of electives for the high I.Q., linguistically talented, college-bound student. The rationale behind this relegation was the assumption that the most socially efficient education was the one in which the student was developing skills that would be directly functional in life after high school. Students who showed no aptitude or interest in studying a foreign language for future life needs were urged by guidance counselors and administrators to use the limited time in a way that would better prepare them for immediate economic and social adjustment upon high school graduation.

Various reports issued during the forties by national organizations, special commission, and committees of educators on the purpose of schooling gave less and less space to foreign languages in the general education of all American youth. For example, in 1940 the American Youth Commission, a committee of the American Council on Education, issued the report *What the High Schools Ought to Teach* (4). Within this report, foreign language programs were criticized for usurping too much of the students' time. It suggested that a general language course that did not attempt to secure a "slender and doubtful degree of mastery" in the foreign language by substituted for the traditional course (p. 7). In addition to this report, the Educational Policies Commission (23) issued a volume in 1944, *Education for All American Youth.* Herein, a different utilitarian reason was offered for studying a foreign language—national defense, a possible career in the military and diplomatic services. However, to the dismay of foreign language teachers, it was recommended that a foreign language be studied through correspondence courses, accompanied by phonograph records. By 1947, the Conference on Life Adjustment Education (18) had supported the 1945 Prosser Resolution and claimed that approximately 80 percent of the high school population was unsuited to study of a second language due to specialized vocational interests that did not include college, or to a low intelligence quotient. Unfortunately, many of today's supervisors, guidance counselors, and school administrators were educated when these anti-foreign language reports were issued. It is no wonder that these philosophies still prevade many of today's schools (DeFilippis, 19).

What does come as a surprise to some today is that the pressure to justify foreign language study on an immediately practical skills basis is not a phenomenon of the 1970s. As a case in point, in 1930 the National Federation of Modern Language Teachers (Schwartz et al., 66) authorized an investigation of vocational possibilities for students who enjoyed using and studying languages but who were reluctant to teach them. In its final report of 1932, possible vocations in which foreign languages could be used were arranged under approximately 60 main headings. Also, as early as 1940, general language courses began to appear in the secondary school curriculum. These courses, conceived by foreign language specialists, were believed to be adaptable to pupil abilities and palatable to the nonacademic student, both prerequisites of a utilitarian-framed curriculum (Adams, 2).

Our profession's attempts to justify the study of a second language on a utilitarian basis was somewhat aided in the 1950s and 1960s by the aftermath of World War II and the ensuing Cold War. Spokespersons for the federal government and prominent educators like Admiral Rickover (57) and James Conant (17) severely criticized the American high school and college for failing to emphasize certain academic areas, mathematics and foreign languages in particular. Yet, although they charged the public schools with a certain anti-intellectual climate due to heavy emphasis on life adjustment education, their philosophies still reflected tenets of education for utilitarian ends. Their major reason for promoting more foreign language study was not for classical disciplinary or even for cultural purposes but for the functional use to which skill development could be put in solving a lack of manpower in the vocations of science, engineering, and government. Also, in line with the utilitarian tradition, foreign language study was urged specifically for the academically talented. For this small fraction of gifted students, Conant (17) recommended:

> The school board should be ready to offer a third and fourth year of a foreign language, no matter how few students enroll. The guidance counselors should urge the completion of a four year sequence of one foreign language *if* the student demonstrates ability in handling foreign languages. On the other hand, students who have real difficulty handling the first year of a language should be advised against continuing with the subject (p. 69).

Contemporary versions and activities of the utilitarian case

Throughout the long history of teaching foreign languages in American schools and universities, very few have seriously questioned the notion that such instruction could and does have some utilitarian benefit for certain students in post-school years. As Parker (51) points out, living people speak and write modern languages; jobs are open to people with linguistic skills; and there are practical uses for such skills possessed by people who are not actually making a living by them. Rather, the focal point of debate has centered around the actual number of students who could thus benefit.

On the middle school and high school level, manifestations of the past popularity of the utilitarian case are still prevalent in the forms of career education and a few exploratory language courses. With respect to the former, its proponents still argue that education should prepare students for future roles in which they will be economically self-sufficient (objective number four of the Cardinal Principles Report). Furthermore, as already mentioned, some of today's exploratory language courses resemble the general language course of the 1940s. Now as then, one purpose of an exploratory program is to expose students to a linguistic and cultural experience without forcing them to bear the added weight of developing linguistic skills in a second language.

Basing the benefit of second-language study on primarily utilitarian reasons at the college level, however, is a practice with a much shorter history. Generally, university professors have preferred to build their case on long-standing cultural and disciplinary traditions. Yet, in part due to drastic reductions in the number of foreign language majors who, in the past, filled literature courses, colleges are slowly beginning to supply a service function to other subject specialities such as business, law, medicine, and social services.

This higher education trend is now documented in at least two sources. Born and Buck's (6) survey of innovative foreign language curricula in U.S. colleges and universities, undertaken in 1974 to 1975 by the Modern Language Association, includes data on more than 1650 courses of a career-related, interdisciplinary nature. From this catalog, an instructor can assess what is being done in other colleges and universities in response to broader trends in education. The second study, published in 1979, attempts to identify successful foreign language undergraduate programs and the factors that contributed to their success (Schulz, 65). A successful program was defined as one that maintained student interest and met its stated objectives. Some of these programs had stated utilitarian goals. Both these curriculum reports allow instructors to contact directly individuals in those institutions who have chosen not to limit course choice to the traditional language and literature program.

Teaching objectives

If today's high school teacher or college professor chooses to support a utilitarian case, it is important to remember that the basic assumption underlying this rationale is that the eventual practical use of a foreign language in the world of work, travel, or social services implies functional skill mastery. If this is, indeed, an intended outcome, then certain factors should be carefully considered.

First, regardless of the teaching method adopted to reach skill proficiency, researchers point out that when the time for this is limited the results in terms of functional usage of the target language will be likewise limited. Specific research by Carroll (11) supports the contention by indicating that one of the main factors influencing linguistic proficiency, as evidenced by correctness of pronunciation, range of vocabulary, and level of grammatical control, is length of exposure to that language. Yet, despite this research conclusion, a historical perspective reveals that most high school students and non-foreign language college majors, study one foreign language for a period of only two years or less. In 1929 Coleman (15) documented this two-year phenonmenon; in 1959 Conant (17) restated it; and in 1974 Levy (42) indicated the length of a sequence for foreign languages as two years or less in 44 percent of the public secondary schools. In 1979, only two percent of the total high school population studying a foreign language was reported to reach the third year (Hechinger, 30). Within this two-year period, it has been estimated that students will be exposed to a foreign language for a maximum of 240 hours. However, Noblitt (50) reports that it takes at least 1200 hours to produce an effective bilingual.

With this reality in mind, the validity of a utilitarian case rests, to a certain extent, on retaining students in courses past the second year in high school or the intermediate level in college. Sharing with students, parents, and decision-making groups the difficulty, if not the impossibility, of acquiring skill proficiency in a two-year program may discourage some from even beginning the study of a second language. Yet, we must honestly acknowledge this crucial variable of time. A possible solution to this problem could be to use the limited time we have with our students more efficiently by concentrating on the skills and content most directly relevant to a particular utilitarian goal. That is, if a commercial objective is chosen, emphasis could be on commercial vocabulary plus, perhaps, the reading and writing skills. This kind of specialized course for specific career needs will be discussed in detail in Chapter 4.

Teaching techniques

As for the traditional beginning or intermediate foreign language class in which general skill development is the aim, attention needs to be directed to the kinds of teaching strategies that support a utilitarian case. The theoretical stance of linguistics and psychology has changed since the late fifties and sixties in which the audiolingual approach rose to dominance along with a utilitarian case. The general feeling pervading the profession at that time was that skill development could best be attained for transfer to the real world via conditioning techniques for mimicry-memorization. Today, researchers generally conclude that if functional usage of the target language is one of our goals, then the learning sequence must be expanded to include variation of conditionally learned patterns followed by personal selection by the student of the particular language structure that can best convey a meaningful message to other conversation participants. Paulston's (52) categorization of drill into mechanical, meaningful, and communicative encourages students to move to this kind of more personal language use. Recent collections of strategies for developing freer communication skills include Linder (43) and Stanislawczyk and Yavener (73). All of these strategies are adaptable to the beginning, intermediate, and advanced secondary or college level. Boylan and Omaggio (7) compiled a booklet specifically with the college student's communicative competence development in mind.

While today's consensus seems to be that no single method is equally appropriate for all pupils or teachers, Chastain (13) emphasizes that a teaching strategy that is vital to achieving functional skill usage is an approach which incorporates a drill stage followed by an application one. That is, after a structure has been manipulated by a student in controlled repetition exercises and pattern practices, the student, at all levels of language instruction, must be provided with as many opportunities as possible for "real" language practice; the criterion for this practice is the correspondence between the classroom activities in which the students participate and the related situations in the foreign language context in which they may participate later. A utilitarian case implies the need for an approach that will permit the greatest amount of contextual, communicative activities in class while still passing through the comprehension, acquisition, and drill phases of language learning.

Unanswered research questions

Perhaps the most basic problem inherent in promoting utilitarian objectives is that of providing our student clientele with what we promise them–functional skill usage in a limited amount of time. While strides have been made in testing the linguistic proficiency of our students at different levels of instruction, the area of testing communicative competence is just beginning to be systematically investigated (Savignon, 63; Valdman and Moody, 77). Thus, the need for formal instruments that test communicative ability is paramount.

Also from a research-oriented perspective, Valdman and Moody (77) suggest that tests of communicative ability generate abundant samples of learner interlanguage. The analysis of inappropriate and ungrammatical responses within these samples could provide a firmer basis for teaching procedures, for the design of programs, and for the analysis of what kinds of errors cause the most interference in communication.

Furthermore, underlying the entire issue of attributing utilitarian benefits to foreign language study is the problem that if education is too narrowly focused on specific, short-term utilitarian objectives, it, paradoxically, can become impractical. That is, specific skills in a second language acquired for specific ends might be limited in value for the simple reason that the students may not find themselves in the situation for which they were specifically trained. This is not to conclude, however, that a utilitarian case should be abandoned and that foreign languages have no relevance in adult activities. Even if students do not remain in programs long enough to learn to imitate native speech, they can be introduced to the techniques of learning a language, making it easier for them to learn another language if a future need should arrive. Yet on a philosophical level, the pedagogical relevance of adhering *only* to a utilitarian case is debatable with respect to individual students, as they do not always know with a high degree of certainty what their life activities will be when secondary and even higher education takes place. In part due to this dilemma, many foreign language specialists in the 1970s have chosen to offset this prediction element inherent in a utilitarian case by also subscribing to a cultural rationale.

The cultural case

Traditionally the cultural justification for the study of second languages has asserted a liberal arts ideal of education. A liberal education, as defined by Van Doren (79), is the study of humankind. This study is to be accomplished through an inquiry process into what it means to be human in present times, what it has meant to be human in the past, and what it could mean to be human in the future. Van Doren suggests that a liberal education is to make a student competent not merely to know or to do, but also, indeed chiefly, to be able to substitute for the inquiry, "What do I think?" for "What can be thought?" (p. 67).

Since the time of the Greeks, liberal education traditionally has had two purposes. The primary purpose has been the acquisition of knowledge of distinctly human activity, while a second purpose has been the cultivation of habits of thought and action that are essential to understanding. Thus, liberal education is essentially cultural in content and reflective in approach. It must be emphasized that both a mental disciplinary case and a cultural case find their basis in the liberal arts tradition, yet the focus of the justifications have differed. Whereas traditional mental disciplinarians have chosen to define education primarily in terms of the powers of the mind it ought to develop, advocates of a cultural case have preferred to define instruction chiefly in terms of the kinds of human experience with which it ought to be concerned. This difference in focus has in turn led to a content emphasis in the culture-oriented curriculum and a mental training emphasis in the other.

What is culture?

Lawton (40) asserts that in the history of education, the word "culture" has been used in two major ways: i.e., as a term denoting the intellectual and artistic achievements of humans, and as a term in the world of the social scientists meaning everything that existed in a society that was man-made. In attaching this second meaning to the word, social scientists have been concerned to avoid value judgments; thus, they have tended to stress the idea of *the whole way of life* as the essence of culture rather than *the best* or *more important aspects.* To summarize, culture may be divided into two distinct yet complementary areas that Brooks (8) labeled formal and deep. The former relates to intellectual and artistic achievements while the latter takes into account the basic everyday life patterns of a society, such as going shopping, greetings, and eating habits. Both areas of culture, however, as integrated into second-language teaching practices, are aimed at introducing the students to variety and sameness in human experience.

What do we know?: The historical basis of the cultural case

At the onset of the nineteenth century and the expansion of schooling in America, educators drew heavily upon the Greek and Roman classics for literary models and as cultural sources in the foreign language class. The classics were considered to be cultural sources to the extent that they awakened interest in the civilizations of the country which they represented. Also by the nineteenth century, the argument had gained strength that a classical liberal arts curriculum, which included the study of Latin, Greek, and mathematics, was valuable for a twofold reason: first, subjects such as Greek and Latin were believed to be excellent tools for mental training; second, these languages incorporated the great truths of human experience in their literatures.

In 1898 the Committee of Twelve of the Modern Language Association (45) made a recommendation that is familiar today with respect to why the American college and high school student would particularly benefit from exposure to a different civilization.

> For us Americans, with our large confidence in our own ways and destiny, there is a special need of the wisdom that comes from familiarity with the life, literature, and history of the great makers of European civilization (pp. 7-8).

In line with this recommendation, virtually all foreign language study in secondary schools and in colleges during the nineteenth century stressed grammatical analysis in the spirit of developing students' mental faculties and was geared to the eventual study of literary masterpieces. From these literary works, students were to learn about the achievements and experiences of other human beings.

During the period between 1900 and World War II, the study of the culture of foreign nations within the foreign language class grew in popularity along with the utilitarian rationale. However, as culture entered the curriculum, it maintained the classical characteristics of formal culture with an emphasis on history, geography, and the arts. In the 1930s and 1940s, under the pressure of curriculum revision favoring utilitarian life-adjustment education, some high school foreign language teachers turned to the cultural justification as a means of developing citizenship qualities, positive social values, and well-balanced personalities in American students. By 1942 the directors of the Stanford Language Arts Project (Kaulfers et al., 34) reported that various school systems across the country had attempted to innovate the curriculum by focusing on culture-content foreign language courses.

Some of these courses remained traditional in the sense that formal cultural aspects were introduced through the medium of the foreign language. Others took on an innovative air as it became more and more acceptable by the foreign language teaching profession to use English in these courses and in the general language courses of the same era. As a case in point, in 1937 in Houston, a general culture-content course in Spanish was offered to high school students. The teacher of this course, Morris (46), claimed its advantage to be that it was not weighted down with an overly technical study of Spanish; the majority of class time was spent on learning about Spanish music, art, history, and geography. These kinds of culture-content courses can be considered the forerunners to today's cultural mini-courses that are sometimes offered in the target language, at other times not.

Contemporary versions and activities of the cultural case

The cultural case has evolved from one of stressing the benefits of formal foreign culture to emphasizing the everyday patterns of a different society. Not only did World War II indicate a need for a functional knowledge of foreign languages, it also encouraged a reappraisal of the term "culture" and its intrinsic relation to language and social behavior. If the American G.I. was to carry out espionage successfully in France, he would have to know more about its culture than a list of six Moliere plays. In general, the work of structural linguists like Sapir (62) and Whorf (83) emphasized to the foreign language teaching profession a notion that continues to support the teaching of deep culture in the high school and college language classroom: the close alliance between language per se and the everyday activities of a speech community. Politzer (55) summarizes this notion.

> Unless we understand the cultural situation in which an utterance is made, we may miss its full implication, or meaning. The tie of language study with culture is not an "option" to be discussed in terms of the preferences of the teacher but actually a practical necessity (p. 130).

Second languages and culture as general education

Whereas the utilitarian case has recently faced some precarious years due to the policy of discrimination in enrollments inherent in its skill proficiency objective, the cultural case has received much emphasis in the 1970s. Currently, its role is to try once again to fix a position for second-language study in the general secondary and higher education of all American students. While it is difficult to build a case for second-language study solely on grounds of cognitive development due to a paucity of current research, or primarily on utilitarian reasons because of the average two-year sequence of study, a case can be put forth in favor of second-language study for all students if it is based on a cultural framework–second-language study can expose students to the reality that other peoples have other ways of understanding the world as evidenced by the language they speak. Rivers (60) maintains that the study of a second language, the culture embedded in the language, and the various intellectual and artistic achievements of its speakers can bring home to the American student the realization that there are many ways of looking at things, many ways of doing and expressing things, and that differences do not necessarily represent moral issues of right and wrong.

Others have expanded on Rivers' thoughts for justifying foreign language study in a general education program because of its cultural contributions. For example, a Modern Language Association Seminar Report (44) claims that the understanding of the culture of a specific country is not, in itself, all that the cultural aspect of language study should contribute to a general and liberal education. It suggests three cultural benefits that should be emphasized when justifying second-language study to the public: 1) students should gain an understanding of the nature of culture itself, 2) their cultural bondage should be reduced, and 3) they should achieve a fuller understanding of their own cultural background. Also, Noblitt (49) writes: "the process of becoming bilingual and bicultural involves both behavioral and cognitive changes in the student and therein lies the potential for a qualitatively different kind of experience in one's liberal education" (p. vii).

One concrete example of the actual repositioning of culture and second languages in the general education of American college students is the recently proposed "core" curriculum of Harvard University. In order to strengthen requirements in the area of general education, in May of 1977, the faculty endorsed a program that will cover about one-quarter of a student's work at Harvard and will consist of seven to ten courses in broad academic areas: literature and the arts; history; social and philosophical analysis; science and mathematics; and foreign languages and culture (Fiske, 26). In particular, the academic area of foreign languages and culture consists of a single course aimed at expanding a student's "range of cultural experience" and providing "fresh perspectives on a student's own cultural assumptions and traditions" (p. 20). These reforms will be phased in over a three-year period, starting in 1979. The ramifications of this development to reinstate foreign language requirements on the college level might not be evident at the high school level for several years. Yet, Primeau (56) emphasizes that after a decade of decline, foreign languages seem to be on the verge of acquiring a much more important position in the American educational system.

Culture education methodology

Jarvis (31) theorizes that in the past, major difficulties in teaching culture arose from a lack of integrated materials and a lack of training in teaching deep culture. Today, however, recent publications hold promise to the individual language teacher as they indicate a growing body of pedagogical techniques plus a growing consensus toward the objectives of teaching culture.

Objectives. According to Jarvis, the objectives of teaching culture have mainly been conceptualized and divided into three categories: knowing, doing, and feeling. In the area of *knowing*, educators are stressing generalities applicable to many cultures yet illustrated by target (second) culture specifics. In the area of *doing*, face-to-face communicative skills are emphasized since sociolinguists are pointing to evidence that crosscultural relation skills (leave-takings, greetings) are as important to communication as mastery of the grammar of a language. With respect to the area of *feelings*, objectives include the fostering of empathy, curiosity, flexibility, and increased self-awareness.

Techniques. As of today, more than expository lecture techniques are available to the language teacher in the development of crosscultural objectives. Jarvis (31) lists more than a dozen techniques for use in the classroom, ranging from culture capsules to critical incidents to self-instructional units. Each of these techniques has its own unique value and limits: culture capsules present a brief focus on one cultural item that differs in the native and target culture such as voting or food shopping; critical incidents designed by social psychologists use episodes involving crosscultural encounters which might be misinterpreted by the naive foreigner. All of these strategies are adaptable to the high school and college level. In particular, with respect to the college classroom in which the goals of formal culture for a long time superseded those of teaching deep culture, basic foreign language texts are now available in which patterns of everyday living are emphasized as well as grammatical analysis, e.g., Noblitt, 49; Valette and Valette, 78. /

Indeed, if one believes that second-language learning is both a linguistic and cultural experience, then a balance must be maintained between skill and content in the construction of dialogues, drills, and reading sections. This primacy of meaningful context is an attempt to foster an awareness of the problems of ethnocentrism, a major thrust of global education. Regarding this crucial issue of ethnocentrism, recent research by Tuttle et al. (76) indicates that the most effective techniques for leading to a significant decrease in ethnocentrism are those that stress the similarities between countries rather than the differences. According to this research, foreign language teachers do appear to contribute in changing negative attitudes toward people whose language they are teaching.

"Humanistic" education

A discussion of the contemporary versions and techniques of the cultural case would not be complete without mention of a current school of educational thought that supports a "humanistic" or confluent case for second-language acquisition. There does appear to be a commonality between "humanistic" education and the cultural case for foreign language study; both place the instructor in the position of focusing on the pursuit and the development of the self, or more simply on self-knowledge. Yet, the major difference occurs in the application of this conviction to the curriculum. With respect to the "humanistic" case, there is a predominating concern with creating a warm, empathetic, totally accepting environment that honors the student. In such an atmosphere, the student's problems, relationships to others, and personal life space are the objects of study for increased self-awareness. On the other hand, with respect to the formal and deep cultural cases, the starting place for increased self-awareness is not the student but other human beings from different societies. In the classroom in which a cultural case prevails, students will be thus engaged in talking about experiences often outside the realm of their own in order to address the same Homeric question of who is a person and what can he or she become. Since the starting points in the search for increased self-knowledge are diametrically opposed–*self*, in the "humanistic" program; *other*, in the culture-oriented program–it should be of little surprise that techniques used in the two programs differ.

Galyean (27) explains that "humanistic" strategies foster the integration of traditional skill development with the nontraditional benefits of increased self-awareness and acceptance through the use of self-reflective language. Gestalt exercises, encounter sessions, human-relation work, group processes, diary writing, values clarification, and meditation all are techniques applied in this program. Moskowitz (47) offers many other "humanistic" strategies applicable to high school and college classes.

Unanswered research questions

Before school boards and university curriculum committees can be convinced of the value of second-language study for personal psychological development in addition to crosscultural awareness, several reservations need to be aired. Specifically, the axiomatic strategy for "humanistic" teaching is to "enable students to use self-reflective language as the basis for target language practice" (Galyean, 27, p. 202). To date no researcher has subjected to a significant chain of inquiry the validity of the two basic assumptions implicit therein: that the use of self-reflective language will enhance second language learning and that the use of self-reflective language in the target language will benefit the student in a search for self-fulfiliment. So far the claims of "humanistic" educators are mainly based on teacher observation rather than on valid research.

In comparison with the cognitive and utilitarian cases, the cultural case has had the least amount of empirical research aimed against its propagation. However, virtual unanimity by high school teachers, college professors, and world leaders on the value of second-language study for global community should not be permitted to obscure the fact that for the American people, the teaching of foreign culture is still a serious issue. The persistence of the tradition that one mass superior American culture and language should be the focal point of the school's attention is apparent in the current debate surrounding the administrative and social policies of bilingual/bicultural programs since 1968 (Epstein, 24).

The implications of the American melting pot theory have been clear to our profession: we have pooled our efforts to combat monolingual/monocultural principles by advocating cultural immersion programs at home and abroad, by continuing to improve and increase our techniques for teaching culture, by offering inservice workshops on teaching culture in both secondary and college programs. Much more evidence than is currently available (Rivers, 58; Sole, 71; Walker, 81) is needed on the effects of our efforts on the student view. Now that various techniques are available for teaching culture, more research like that of Tuttle et al. (76) should be undertaken to determine what kinds of cultural presentations significantly affect world view and attitudes.

The cultural case has always appealed to liberal arts educators, and for valid reasons. Each language a person controls gives another insight into reality. The greater the understanding of reality, the better chance one has of exerting some control over it and having real control over one's own destiny. A strong emphasis on the cultural case, does not mean, however, that the profession should completely neglect aural-oral skill development, as was often the case before World War II. The "I-took-four-years-of-French-and-I-can't-say-anything" complaint is too familiar to justify a complete substitution of a cultural objective without a language component, or a cautious cognitive development one for a linguistic rationale. Rather, it appears as if our profession should take a strong role in teaching a living language that some students may be able to utilize in their future as well as giving them a deeper global understanding of the society and of the world in which they function.

The cases for second-language study: An assessment

The issue of curriculum justification is an important consideration in all subject areas. The domain of second-language study has provided us with one good example of how this issue has evolved in a subject field surrounded by controversy. At the onset of this chapter, certain basic questions were raised with respect to the popularity of foreign languages as high school or college subjects. After having examined the origins of the cases as well as their pedagogical implications in the past and present, it should now be possible to indicate some implications for clarifying problems in justifying second-language study for all students.

In the hopes of uncovering some clues to the reason for the rise and fall in popularity of foreign languages as school subjects, the educational basis of each case was analyzed. A liberal arts tradition, the origin of the mental discipline and cultural cases, was found to be extremely favorable to the study of a second language by all students. A social efficiency tradition, the grounds for a utilitarian case, has been most unfavorable to the inclusion of foreign languages in a general high school program. In fact, it was during the first fifty years of the twentieth century, when curriculum revision ran along utilitarian lines, that the study of a second language lost its predominant position in a general high school program and was relegated to an elective. During these same years, enrollments dropped. On the college level, the great drop in enrollments occurred at a later date; the 1960s witnessed an elimination of the foreign language requirement for graduation and a subsequent decline in enrollments. The students' desire for a more practical education was one of the reasons for the student protest that led to a change in the college curriculum. It appears as if declines in enrollments have often accompanied a utilitarian twist in the purpose of formal education.

Most important, support of a cognitive case or a cultural one, contrary to belief, does not necessarily mean the neglect of intelligence and skills for practical ends. As Van Doren (79) cautions: "All education is useful, whether referring to liberal education (dealing with ideas and abstractions) or vocational education dealing with skill-particular things that men actually do" (p. 76). The three justification theories under consideration are all based on the assumption that foreign languages are primarily means for the accomplishment of other desirable ends: refining mental powers, increasing employment opportunities, and broadening one's conception of what constitutes basic human activity.

In response to the question of whether we as a profession can support each case today, no significant chain of research has definitively validated or invalidated the alleged benefits of second-language study as put forth by each justification theory. As a result, versions of each case coexist in present day theories and practices. In fact, many of today's "new" course formats (minicourses, career education, exploratory language programs, bilingual programs) are remnants of former curriculum "innovations" that occurred many decades before. Thus, each case had had a substantial impact on how foreign languages are to be organized for the purposes of teaching. Fruitful research would entail analyzing the implications and actual pedagogical techniques associated with the three cases in order to determine their relationships to each other as well as their relative merits.

There may also be a basis for research in the suggestion of a fourth case for second-language study. While all the cases previously discussed are based on the assumption that foreign languages are primarily tools for accomplishment of some other desirable ends, a fourth theory could suggest that *a subject matter be considered as an end in itself*, as a mental game that one enjoys for its own sake. In other words, although the intellectual play associated with the study of another language might ultimately have practical consequences, these results would not have to be the sole justification for the activity. Dunn (21), in recalling the magical aura that surrounded her high school study of Latin, maintains that a case be made for foreign language study on the sheer enjoyment it can bring to the learner. This would not require the neglect of foreign languages for practical ends; it would mean an end to the demand that school subjects be evaluated only in these terms.

At this time it is imperative that we reach out and inform our public of all the possible researched benefits of second-language study. Cogent statements adaptable to presentations to decision-making groups on the high school and college levels need to be formulated. In particular, the aspects of a general education that second-language study has long been purported to cultivate are at least two. First, they are proposed as a way of cultivating an appreciation of the infinite sameness and variety of human nature, since it is by learning to understand ideas, customs, institutions, and ethical systems other than the students' own that they will become aware of the vital richness of human nature. Second, faculty psychologists of the past and cognitive ones of today stress that second-language study can foster understanding of the elements and relationships of thought.

With respect to the public school student, tying the cases for second-language study to the goals or educational philosophy of a local district or state could be a beneficial path to follow. *Foreign Languages and The Basics* (1) is a step in this direction; it outlines how foreign languages contribute to basic skill development (reading, communication, interpersonal) as documented by research. Moreover, a personal review of local and state position statements points to overlapping public school philosophies that can be fulfilled by second-language study. As an example of how language specialists can relate the objectives of their community's educational program to our discipline, the philosophy of two different boards of education are compared.

Pennsylvania State Board of Education (54)

Objective I. Education should help every child acquire the greatest possible understanding of himself or herself and appreciation of his or her worthiness as a member of society.

Objective II. Education should help every child acquire understanding and appreciation of persons belonging to other social, cultural, and ethnic groups.

DeKalb County Board of Education of Atlanta, Georgia (20)

Objective I. Education should help each pupil develop a realistic yet positive image of himself, his peers, and his world.

*These objectives can be related to the cultural case.

Pennsylvania

Objective III. Education should help every child acquire, to the fullest extent, mastery of the basic skills in the use of words and numbers.

DeKalb County

Objective II. Education should help each pupil avail himself of the educational opportunities provided him in terms of his abilities, and basic needs.

*These objectives can be related to a modified mental disciplinary case.

Pennsylvania

Objective V. Education should help every child acquire the habits and attitudes associated with responsible citizenship.

DeKalb County

Objective IV. Educational opportunities will result in a person who appreciates his heritage . . . and who desires that all mankind be allowed this same quality of life he enjoys.

*These objectives can be related to a cultural case.

Pennsylvania

Objective VIII. Education should help each child understand the opportunities open to him or her to prepare for a productive life and help each child to take full advantage of these opportunities.

DeKalb County

Objective III. Educational opportunities provided each pupil should be sufficient to provide him with the necessary knowledge, skills, and attitudes to successfully enter the world of work on a job of his choice or successfully pursue post high school education.

*These objectives can be related to a utilitarian case.

Pennsylvania

Objective VII. Education should help give each child opportunity and encouragement to be creative in one or more fields of endeavor.

DeKalb County

Objective IV. Educational opportunities provided each pupil will result in a person who enjoys his work and his leisure time.

*These objectives can be related to an intellectual play experience case.

While it might not be possible to relate all general philosophical objectives to foreign language study, more than one objective in a list of five to ten can be linked to our discipline. At the very least, statements like the above may serve to broaden the traditional conditioning of the "accepted subjects"–usually the three Rs–to include second-language study. Teachers must be prepared to defend their discipline by listing relevant details of each case under the rubric of the local and state philosophical objectives.

At the college level, the essence of the argument is not so much how second-language study links to the educational statements of a particular community, but to the larger, general liberal education of American youth. Basic and intermediate language courses that focus on crosscultural awareness as well as on linguistic skill development seem to be the direction in which the first two years of the college language programs are moving. The issue of whether this direction will take the form of a requirement for graduation is still unresolved. However, as the "back-to-basics" movement appears to be gaining momentum, there does seem to be a higher education trend to scrutinize the curriculum and in some instances to reinstate broad uniform requirements that were eliminated in the 1960s. This was recently evidenced at Harvard. Similarly, since the fall of 1978 at Emory University, students must fulfull requirements in five basic areas: Tools of Learning, Natural Science and Mathematics, Historical Perspectives of the Western World, Individual and Society, and Aesthetics and Values. Election of foreign language and literature courses can fulfill requirements in two of these broad areas. Furthermore, Watkins (82) writes that a parallel revamping of the California State Universities and Colleges is now under investigation. One of the rationales behind this redistribution of general course requirements is that once students have used a foreign language to meet them, the language could then be applied to an elective course, many of which appear today to be career-related as well as literature oriented, thus aimed at the nonmajor as well as the major. Leblanc and Leblanc (41) offer a model of such a program, the B.S. Degree in French/Business at the Pennsylvania State University.

If one considers the progress made in improving teaching strategies added to the practical uses of language skills and their nonlinguistic benefits, it is hard to conceive of our discipline as a "frill" to the basic education of American youth. Armed with a growing and substantial amount of research data, we must not let this conceptualization crystalize any further. The zeal and optimism that has prevailed in the search for better methodologies should and can legitimately be directed to the promotion of second-language experiences for everyone.

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Special curricula for special needs

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Introduction: Generalist versus specialist

A recent statement "About Education" in the *New York Times* (Hechinger, 26) lists some alarming facts.

- 27% of high school seniors believe that Golda Meir was President of Egypt; 40% think Israel is an Arab nation
- 17% of high school seniors estimate that the U.S. population is larger than that of either China or the Soviet Union
- A Gallup poll showed in 1977 that half of all Americans did not know that the U.S. had to import petroleum to meet its needs
- Only 5% of the nation's public school teachers have had any exposure to international studies
- Only 3% of undergraduates are enrolled in courses dealing with international affairs or foreign cultures
- Only about half of those seeking doctoral degrees must demonstrate a reading knowledge in a foreign language
- A survey of 30,000 people ten to fourteen years old in nine countries ranks American students near the bottom in their comprehension of foreign cultures

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These findings have prompted the Council on Learning to announce a program on "Education and the World View."

These matters hardly come as a surprise to the members of the foreign language profession. Used to indifference or apathy and the lack of an awareness of international affairs on the part of the public, we simply see our everyday experiences confirmed in the survey's results. Yet to have such statements made in a major newspaper is in itself remarkable. The message for us goes far beyond the confirmation of long-held views–it presents perhaps the most important challenge the profession has ever faced. How can we effectively use our position in education to open the window to the world?

Barely twenty years ago such issues as the merits of the audiolingual approach versus the grammar translation method were heatedly debated at our professional conferences. Those concerns now seem almost provincial and parochial compared to the enormity of future tasks. The challenges to which the profession must rise during the next decade are directly related to sweeping and frequently confusing developments in the country's educational system. If we are successful in integrating second languages as essentials into programs conceived within movements such as global or international education, multilingual/multicultural education, career education, and lifelong learning, then we have an opportunity to become indispensable to the American educational system. If we do not face the new educational realities with a plan of action, even the most positive recommendations of the President's Commission will not strengthen the case for foreign languages (for background see Chapter 1). In fact we may well be asked to deliver and to implement beyond our present capabilities. If we fail, the damage will be immeasurable. After all, the armies of poorly taught and disappointed foreign language students of the past generation are now parents, guidance counselors, and administrators; and public policymakers will simply have their negative opinions and attitudes toward foreign languages confirmed, and their ranks will swell.

A curious contradiction seems to lie in the new emphasis of our profession on special needs and interests, on language and culture for special purposes on the one hand, and on the other in our traditional identification with liberal arts education, humanistic principles, and the general education. But our professional history reveals that our teaching has traditionally been limited to language, literature, and, more recently, culture and civilization. Thus the inclusion of special interest areas, such as those of career-related programs and those cultural topics traditionally considered the domain of social scientists, in fact represents an expansion and not a narrowing of focus and perspective. The new clientele–the less able student, the older returning student, and the student who majors in another field and uses the second language as an ancillary skill–again represents expansion. In stressing that we have more to offer to more students for more purposes, we do not limit ourselves to vocational goals, but on the contrary we make a liberal arts discipline more viable, more responsive to social needs, more visible within the educational system, and–why not?–more useful.

General considerations for implementing change

In planning curricula for special needs, a course of action is basically determined by an initial assessment of:

- The need for a particular curriculum. The awareness of this need is facilitated through professional conferences and publications as well as through the media in general. The need may be a community need or a general societal need.
- Faculty interest. No program can succeed without this essential ingredient.
- Faculty competence. How much retraining, retooling, and updating will be needed? The fear of dilettantism haunts many of those who implement dramatic innovations.
- Administration and community support.
- Departmental rapport: the role of the department head as a facilitator; attitude of colleagues.
- Availability of material and model course outlines: classes suitable for observation; material for sharing.
- Flexibility in scheduling.
- Support systems, e.g., other districts, institutions of higher education, cultural institutes, and information centers of the country to be studied.
- Strengths and weaknesses of the present curriculum.
- Potential for interdisciplinary work within the school, district, or institution.
- Procedures for program evaluation.

Equally important is an assessment of the foreign language learner's goals.

A useful questionnaire in the 1979 Northeast Conference Report (Rivers, 41) received responses from foreign language teachers in 48 countries and 50 states. They were asked to rank 21 objectives frequently mentioned in professional literature in the order of importance for their respective students. Possible answers range from the language for special purposes (e.g., careers) to concern for global communication. Before planning changes in the curriculum, the student population presently enrolled in the foreign language course as well as those interested but not yet in the program could give input through a questionnaire adapted for them. Since it involves some fairly sophisticated responses requiring a degree of self-knowledge perhaps not yet acquired at the junior high school level, a more suitable questionnaire might be developed for younger students. The results of such instruments can provide valuable assistance in the design of courses. Particularly on the graduate level and for adult education or continuing education, expressed student interests and needs should constitute a decisive factor in curriculum design.

The 1978 New York State curriculum guide, *Modern Languages for Everyone*, outlines the possible options or strands that allow the necessary flexibility to provide special courses to meet special interests, not only for those students who enroll to meet specific objectives but also for those who tend to drop out of the "regular" language course. These options are illustrated in Figure 1.

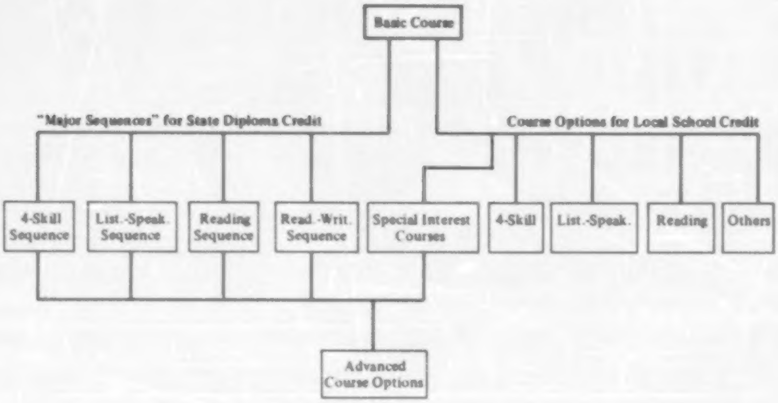

Basic Course
"Major Sequences" for State Diploma Credit
Course Options for Local School Credit
4-Skill Sequence
List.-Speak. Sequence
Reading Sequence
Read.-Writ. Sequence
Special Interest Courses
4-Skill
List.-Speak.
Reading
Others
Advanced Course Options

Figure 1. The New York State Modern Foreign Language Program

In an ACTFL position paper (Scebold, 42, p. 28) the following stages of development are seen as essential.

1 **Awareness**
Renewed emphasis must be placed on the value of foreign language study as a basic in the humanities; there must be heightened sensitivity to the value of foreign language and international studies in the world of work; and there is the need for reaffirmation of the value of the humanities as a foundation for the fullest realization of the potential of each individual.

2 **Involvement**
Planning for the future must involve the public in the creation of a strategy for reaching goals they value. Through involving large numbers of the public, many of the points we continue to emphasize would be given far greater significance and support as evidence is gathered to support the value of foreign language as a primary or auxiliary skill in many areas of international business, industry, government, and the service professions, including the need in many communities for volunteer, multilingual language skill banks.

3 **Implementation**
Renovation of existing education programs will be required as the nature of desired outcomes is identified. Support must be provided for those in education who will face the problems of preservice and inservice teacher education.

Due to decreasing enrollments at all levels of education, tenure restraints and lack of turnover have predetermined the selection of teachers. We must create a plan that will be feasible when entrusted to our current teachers and provide the training that will enable them to accomplish the task.

Global or international education

Other options for curricular design can be found in the concept of global education (the term most frequently used on the precollegiate level) or international education (the term more commonly used in higher education). A statement on "An Integrated Approach to Global Education" developed for a social studies program (Bureau of Curriculum Services, Pennsylvania Department of Education) lists the objectives of global education:

- Develop an integrated plan of education that increases the ability of students to use the tools of varied disciplines to understand their world and cope with the major issues confronting humans.
- Develop skills in perceiving, in organizing knowledge in interpersonal interaction, and in problem-solving.
- Develop an awareness of the common goals, hopes, and creative expressions of people from a variety of different lands and cultures through an integrated study of the world.
- Develop a self-understanding (microcosm) through a deeper understanding of others (macrocosm).
- Develop methods for individualizing instruction for students while maintaining a common core of developmental growth.
- Develop a systematic way to consider a vast area of knowledge so that lifelong learning may be encouraged in a rational manner.

It is striking how directly these goals correspond to the goals of the foreign language profession.

The American Council on the Teaching of Foreign Languages, together with the National Council for Social Studies, has made specific recommendations for precollegiate education to the Presidential Commission. These recommendations for international socialization emphasize that:

- International learning begins early in life.
- International learning is cumulative.
- Middle childhood (grades three through eight) is an important time for international learning.
- International education and the opportunity to acquire second-language skills should be made available to the total population.
- Sufficient time should be given in the K-12 sequence to developing the vast and complex understandings and skills involved in preparing students for citizenship and work roles in the twenty-first century.

The recommendations do not call for new courses or programs but instead for reorientation and restructuring of existing courses. Obviously the foreign language profession cannot bring about the necessary changes without the active support and cooperation of the faculty in the other disciplines. However, since our studying, teaching, and research continually bring us into contact with an international or supranational dimension–that is, we cross cultural and linguistic borders daily–we can perhaps more easily initiate change reaching beyond the foreign language classroom. This is not yet understood or recognized by those who see themselves in the forefront of international education, namely the social scientists. The summary of the panel on Curricular Issues in International Education K-12 (President's Commission on Foreign Language and International Studies, San Francisco Hearing, February 23, 1979) makes this clear. While this summary asks more questions than it answers and therefore can be considered the beginning of the discussion and not the end, the omission of any reference to the central role of foreign language, literature, and culture in international education as taught in our classes is most alarming. It is evidence of the possibility that we are left out of the picture before the movement toward internationalizing education has even begun. Precisely for this reason the profession must deal with this issue. Therefore, the document is quoted here in its entirety.

Curricular Issues in International Education, K-12

A *Goals/Objectives*
  1 Shall we teach international education for today, for tomorrow, or for both? Where should the emphasis be?
  2 Are we developing American citizens who know the world and can cope effectively with world-related situations, or are we developing citizens of the world?
  3 What should be the ultimate end of international education? Is the individual citizen the end? Or, are we teaching the human being as a means to other ends like world peace or universal understanding? Is international education then education for brotherhood and world peace?

B *Outcomes*
  1 What outcomes do we expect of international education, K-12 in terms of:
    a Understanding?
    b Values?
    c Attitudes?
    d Skills?
  2 Should these outcomes be prioritized, or are we developing them together and to the same degree?

C *Organization*
  1 Which approach shall we take to teach international education?
    a International education as a separate subject
    b As part of Social Studies/Science

c Interdisciplinary approach
d Any two of a, b, & c.
e All of a, b, & c.

2 Should the same concepts be taught from K-12 from a simple to an increasingly complex level, or are certain concepts appropriate only to certain grade levels or groups?

D *Content*

1 Does international education have its own body of knowledge, or does it have to rely on the content of the different social and behavioral sciences?

2 What should be the components of international education? On what basis(es) shall we identify these components?

3 When we talk about international understanding, what are we trying to understand about other countries?

E *Instruction*

1 Will the teaching of international education be direct or indirect? Do certain outcomes lend themselves better to direct teaching? to indirect teaching?

2 How can international education abstractions like "interdependence" and "conflict" be made comprehensible to K-12 students?

3 What kinds of instructional strategies and materials will foster the attainment of the goals of international education?

4 How shall we prepare teachers for the teaching of international education?

Stimulating change

In moving toward global education, the foreign language teacher can take these steps:

- Work with teachers from social studies, English, art, and music in identifying interrelated aspects of the curriculum beyond such existing courses as world history and world literature.
- Provide teachers from other subject matter areas with pertinent materials, e.g., recent developments in the European community or the elections for a European parliament for social studies courses.
- Offer interdisciplinary elective courses for seniors on topics of universal significance and concern, e.g., sources of energy, environmental concerns, social and educational politics, world trade, disarmament, the role of women, and technological advancement.
- Develop independent study units in cooperation with teachers from other subjects to be used as an expansion of the regular courses.
- Work toward joint conferences with professional associations from other disciplines; invite teachers from other disciplines to participate in foreign language conferences.
- Implement introductory courses, e.g., the role of the U.S. in today's world to show global interdependence.

- Team-teach courses with teachers from other disciplines.
- Teach courses on the multicultural traditions in America.

Further important suggestions on goals and strategies can be found in "An Issue on the Horizon: The Role of Foreign Languages in Global Education" (Strasheim, 46). A model program for International Studies is offered at Hillcrest High School in Queens, New York. This is an interdisciplinary program involving the English, foreign language, and social studies departments. In an open-ended, three-period-per-day configuration, students meet with teaching specialists from the three disciplines to study in depth the history, culture, politics, economics, literature, religion, and language of several areas of the world. The course is developed as a world tour during which the students take an imaginary trip and study aspects of a particular area of the globe in depth (Warner, 55).

Future preservice and inservice training of teachers from all relevant disciplines (global education should not be limited to foreign language and social studies curricula) should include training to meet the needs of global or international education.

On the college level the opportunities for strengthening international education are obvious. Some possibilities to be explored are:

- Interdisciplinary courses. These can be interdepartmental or intradepartmental, depending on faculty competence.
- Cooperation with area studies programs.
- Establishment of overseas studies programs for students from all disciplines. These can range from the typical junior year abroad to advanced graduate study.
- Involvement of students from abroad participating in exchange programs of other departments. The foreign language department often becomes a second home for these students, and their presence and participation in teaching or departmental activities should prove invaluable.
- Exploration of specific service courses for professional schools for the college of continuing education.
- Offering of freshman seminars (usually three weeks) on, for example, the Spanish-speaking areas, the French-speaking areas, the German-speaking areas.
- Organization of international events for students; establishment of language-oriented international dormitories.
- Familiarization for the larger campus concerning international information sources available at the campus library.
- Cosponsorship of lecture series and cultural events of international significance.
- Flexible program design for majors and minors to combine several areas of study.
- Cooperation with the college or department of education to explore seminars on international education for all preservice teachers.

- Cooperation with the college or department of education for inservice training of teachers.
- Cooperation with teacher centers.

These steps constitute a beginning. They emphasize that our commitment to international education must become real and visible to the entire campus community.

In a statement of a strong commitment in higher education to institutionalizing international education, the American Association of State Colleges and Universities urged that each institution consider the following questions:

1 Does its current undergraduate curriculum reflect the implications of interdependence? Are the "international" and "intercultural" components of its curriculum an integral part of a total institutional plan, or are they an uneven and fragmented assortment of interests?

2 What ought to be the "international" role of the institution on and off campus? What is the best way to examine and to plan such a role?

3 What is the status of its resources, human and material, in international studies? How can it strengthen these without additional funding? What must the institution do that requires additional funding?

4 Has it considered curricular alternatives in such fields as area studies, interdisciplinary and comparative studies, cross-cultural education, etc.? What is the potential of the outreach programs in the international areas?

5 Is it making full use of opportunities for faculty development? How can it develop other opportunities in this area? Does it have provision for visiting foreign students?

6 What is its policy on admission and training of foreign students? Is it making full use of their presence?

7 Is it making full use of opportunities for its students to study and to work in a foreign society?

8 Has it considered the possibility and value of interinstitutional cooperation and consortial arrangements both within and outside the United States in fulfilling its program objectives?

9 Has its board of trustees (or its equivalent) seriously considered the international role and responsibility of the institution? How about its State Commission on Higher Education? Its state legislators?

10 What is its policy in international education in relation to "continuing education" groups, the business community, the media, the government, and K to 12 public education? (31, p. 17.)

Multicultural education

Closely linked to the concept of global or international education is the concept of multicultural education. By emphasizing multicultural education, teacher and learner can accept and appreciate the cultural pluralism of our own society (Rivers, 41) as well as that of others.

Multicultural education opposes the attempts to obliterate or merely tolerate cultural differences (Hunter, 29). Instead, it affirms that schools should be oriented to cultural enrichment of all children; it affirms that cultural diversity is a valuable resource for this country and should be preserved. It enables the student to understand and value his or her own heritage while at the same time expanding his or her horizon, that is, reaching a better understanding and appreciation of the world at large (Born, 5). This dual purpose must be emphasized: greater awareness and appreciation of the microcosm (one's own culture) leads toward better awareness and appreciation of the macrocosm (the other culture[s]), with the reverse also true. To be more concrete, the study of the nineteenth-century history of German immigration and the German contribution to American society leads to a better understanding of our present society; the study of the political and social conditions of nineteenth-century Germany, on the other hand, sheds light on the reasons–that is, political, social, and economic factors that led to emigration–which in turn determined the behavioral and cultural patterns and the general societal contribution of German immigrant groups.

A useful list of general cultural aspects that can be infused in the curriculum can be found in the criteria applied to evaluate presently available texts (Moreau and Pfister, 36).

Human Nature
Individualism
Common Sense
Liberty
Social Relations
Family Ties
Youth Culture
Social Stratification
Educational System
Religion as a Social Force
Man and Nature
Time
Past versus Present Timeposts
Space
City versus Provinces
Housing Design

Of the ten texts evaluated by the authors, only one was found adequate in conveying these cultural aspects. Despite the amount of material available, at least for the commonly taught languages, most teachers find texts still wanting. Another consideration is the fact that any book on culture is quickly outdated.

Rather than designing yet another set of approaches or strategies for the teaching of culture, it might be useful to look at the matter from a topical approach. Each topic becomes the focus of an independent module that should be updated regularly. The module(s) can be used independently or sequentially to supplement the class text. The module can be adapted to individual class levels and desired competency levels. If possible, such modules should be designed by teachers from other pertinent fields together with the foreign language teacher, thus furthering cooperation and assuring greater objectivity. Each module contains: 1) a general introduction stating objectives; 2) primary reading materials such as original newspaper articles, interviews, news broadcasts, letters, excerpts from important books, and charts and statistical data where applicable; 3) recommended reading for further study (some of this could be in English), tapes and recorded radio programs; and 4) suggested class activities. The topics selected here deal with contemporary social issues but can and should also be presented with a historical perspective.

- Family Structures
- The Concept of Work
- The Role of Women
- Leisure Time
- Mass Media
- The Roots of Democracy
- The Role of Minorities
- The Educational System and Vocational Training
- The Role of Cities and Urban Planning
- Science and Technology
- Ecology and Environmental Protection

Other categories for which appropriate modules can be designed are aspects of history, political system, economy, and the arts.

The method used in designing and teaching the material is comparative and contrastive. The students' knowledge of their own system is used as a starting point. One of the objectives is that students not only acquire knowledge of the other country but also, at the same time, knowledge of their own. One result is that students begin to read newspapers with greater frequency, relate the information to other courses, and become interested in news broadcasts. Care must be taken that this is not a force-feeding of information, but that it is personalized and responsive to individual interests and experiences. In discussing the role of women in another country, we also deal with stereotypes and thus values clarification; in discussing the educational system, we may discover some roots for our own system as well as similarities in the concerns of young people in both systems. We may discover how much impact the American educational system has had on other educational systems in recent years. The topic of leisure time can lead, for example, to the cultural and social significance of a café; this in turn can lead to role-playing activities, thus emphasizing communication skills.

This topical approach, which may seem rather advanced, purposely avoids the bird's-eye view, the superficial tourist perspective, the picturesque quaintness of many culture capsules. It can challenge the bright student and yet is flexible enough to provide attainable objectives for the slower student. Both discursive speaking–talking on a given subject to someone–and communication in the form of a dialogue—speaking with someone to achieve some kind of action—can be practiced in conjunction with each topic. The former frequently is more of an intellectual exercise; the latter often involves the emotions to a greater extent. On the advanced levels, particularly, students who have experienced the second culture firsthand through travel should be invited to contribute to the module for each topic. The updating of modules could be independent study projects for competent students.

The modules described above are now being developed by a team of German historians, social scientists, and political scientists from about ten universities. They can be adapted for use in senior high school, undergraduate, and graduate courses, varying with the level of competence and objectives. However, since our target groups are not limited to these educational levels, such modules could be designed in English also and used for courses in continuing and adult education. Initial attempts have been quite successful. The students' reasons for taking such a course, which could be labeled, e.g., "Germany Today," vary greatly. One student might be a homemaker whose parents came from Germany, another a business executive who realizes that a knowledge of that country is essential to his or her work. On this level the comparative and contrastive approach is particularly effective since the students bring to the course more knowledge but also more prejudices.

Foreign language teachers no longer see their mission as one of training an elite group, and the "Modern Languages for Everyone" (title of the 1978 New York State Curriculum Guide) represents a necessary and important change in orientation. Culture studies represent an opportunity to reach even those less talented or less interested in the four skills. It is equally important for us to reach those who will hold future leadership positions in politics, economics, education, media, and the arts. Their understanding and acceptance of other cultures will have far-reaching positive consequences and serve the national and international interest. It should be noted that an understanding of the culture was listed as particularly important by and for the business community (Inman, 30). The recognition that many of our current problems, such as distribution of oil, trade relations, nuclear power, and human rights, are global in nature makes multicultural training for Americans even more urgent. Already in 1973 Reischauer (40) points to the grave problems that can only be solved on a global scale, requiring a higher degree of understanding and greater capacity for cooperation than we now have. In addition to understanding and cooperation one should add a key concept—*acceptance*. It best sums up the goal(s) of multicultural education.

Career education and foreign languages

During the 1970s the importance of foreign languages in such fields as business, government, and industry has been discussed in numerous publications (see especially Beusch, 4; Born, 5; Honig and Brod, 28; and most issues of *ADFL Bulletin*). Survey results provide strong evidence that the need for people trained in foreign languages to be used as ancillary skills in fields other than teaching, interpreting, and translating is indeed real (Arnett, 2; Inman, 30).

The media have corroborated these findings, thus gradually helping to raise public consciousness and repeatedly pointing to the fact that the United States cannot afford provincialism and monolingualism in an increasingly complex and interdependent world in which the economic and political supremacy of the United States is seriously challenged. (Fowler, 21; Greer and Kandel, 24; Hechinger, 27; Porter, 39).

Educating students to become multilingual and multicultural is in the national and international interest. To do so effectively and on a large scale is perhaps one of the most important and one of the most difficult tasks facing the profession. We must convince the public of the significance and soundness of our educational objectives, and we must convince future employers in banking, business, and industry, in service industries, in the media, and in the legal profession, to name only a few areas, that schools and universities can indeed provide the necessary foreign language training. Evidence suggests that lack of communication between the education sector and future employers is still a serious problem. Business and industry continue to view foreign languages and the cultures they represent as something that can be acquired in a crash course or through some commercial package, including new tools such as pocket-sized computerized language translators. It is gratifying to note that the media takes a somewhat more cautious view of the merits of such devices.

The profession's responses to this societal need have been valiant but unorganized and uncoordinated. The degree of commitment varies as much as the objectives. If we are to succeed, our efforts should follow the five steps of career education: *awareness, orientation, exploration, preparation,* and *specialization.*

Awareness

It is essential that, starting in junior high school, students become aware of the integral role of foreign languages and cultures in a liberal arts education. This should be the basic premise of our argument, particularly in a society that values specialization often at the expense of a general humanistic education. No matter how specialized the training we offer may be, we should never lose sight of our society's need for "generalists [i.e., educated human beings] with a specialty" (Zais, 61, p. 10).

A second step in increasing students' awareness is to open windows to the world outside the United States. What relevance does the study of foreign languages have in the students' future lives as citizens within their own community, as company executives, government officials, reporters, artists, bankers, international lawyers, or, if none of these, tourists? Why is it necessary for a company executive negotiating an important contract with a foreign company to read the fine print and not to have to rely on an interpreter or translator? Why is it important for him or her to understand foreign partners' customs, the culturally determined "hidden agenda," and the nuances of speech and gesture? Why is it important for a scientist to read about research findings immediately in the original language and not have to wait until the article appears in translation, sometimes not until a year later? Why is it essential for the tourist to understand the culture and communicate well enough to form lasting friendships or to make travel a more enjoyable experience if only by possessing some "survival skills"? These are some of the questions we should ask and answer as we guide students toward formulating and accepting various rationales for the study of foreign languages. The multitude of materials developed can be summarized, excerpted, and compiled in brief and concise information packets. The students themselves should be encouraged to gather pertinent information. It is essential that at this initial step of creating awareness the students become cognizant of the need for early exploration of career goals, regardless of whether foreign languages are to be used as primary or ancillary skills. It is equally important that students become aware of their values and attitudes, interests and aspirations, talents and special skills as they may be related to a future career. To accomplish this awareness, students should be guided through a kind of self-inventory, which might include aptitude tests.

Orientation

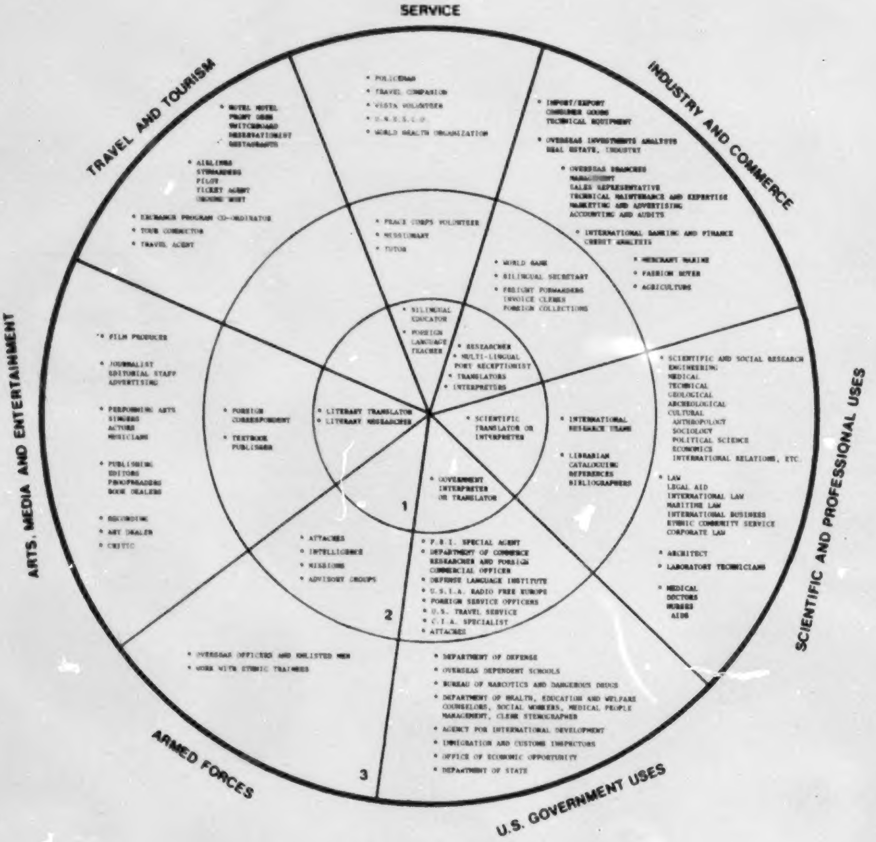
We now narrow the focus and look at the career clusters defined by the United States Office of Education which involve the use of foreign languages either in the United States or abroad: agri-business and natural resources; business and office occupations; health occupations; public service; environment; communications and media; hospitality and recreation; manufacturing; marketing and distributing; marine service; personal service; construction; consumer and homemaking occupations; and the fine arts and humanities. Specific careers within each cluster can be grouped (whether the foreign language skill is needed in the United States, overseas, or both) and ranked (in order of importance as regards the foreign language skill). Several useful handbooks are available to help both teachers and students with specific information (Bourgoin, 8; Sheriff, 44; Warner, 54).

Visual representations, such as Figure 2, are excellent for information dissemination.

The activities for the orientation stage can be infused in the foreign language class. They can also be offered within the framework of a workshop, a special day of the week set aside, a career conference for the entire school or for foreign language students only, or a mini-course. It is essential that the orientation be expanded to include guidance and career counselors, administrators, parents, school board officials, and community leaders. Ideally speakers representing some of the careers areas who are sympathetic to the study of foreign language should be brought in. Y. W. Bator, an official from Pan American Airlines, stated in testimony to the President's Commission that to fill 400 flight attendant positions in 1977 his company interviewed 16,000 applicants, 70 percent

Figure 2. Careers Utilizing Foreign Languages.

Division of Arts and Humanities, Bureau of Curriculum Services,
Pennsylvania Department of Education.


SERVICE
INDUSTRY AND COMMERCE
SCIENTIFIC AND PROFESSIONAL USES
U.S. GOVERNMENT USES
ARMED FORCES
ARTS, MEDIA AND ENTERTAINMENT
TRAVEL AND TOURISM
• POLICEMAN
• TRAVEL COMPANION
• VISTA VOLUNTEER
• U.N.E.S.C.O.
• WORLD HEALTH ORGANIZATION
• PEACE CORPS VOLUNTEER
• MISSIONARY
• TUTOR
• BILINGUAL EDUCATOR
• FOREIGN LANGUAGE TEACHER
• IMPORT/EXPORT CONSUMER GOODS TECHNICAL EQUIPMENT
• OVERSEAS INVESTMENTS ANALYSTS REAL ESTATE, INDUSTRY
• OVERSEAS BRANCHES MANAGEMENT SALES REPRESENTATIVE TECHNICAL MAINTENANCE AND EXPERTISE MARKETING AND ADVERTISING ACCOUNTING AND AUDITS
• INTERNATIONAL BANKING AND FINANCE CREDIT ANALYSIS
• MERCHANT MARINE
• FASHION BUYER
• AGRICULTURE
• WORLD BANK
• BILINGUAL SECRETARY
• FREIGHT FORWARDERS INVOICE CLERKS FOREIGN COLLECTIONS
• RESEARCHER
• MULTI-LINGUAL PORT RECEPTIONIST
• TRANSLATORS
• INTERPRETERS
• SCIENTIFIC AND SOCIAL RESEARCH ENGINEERING MEDICAL TECHNICAL GEOLOGICAL ARCHEOLOGICAL CULTURAL ANTHROPOLOGY SOCIOLOGY POLITICAL SCIENCE ECONOMICS INTERNATIONAL RELATIONS, ETC.
• LAW LEGAL AID INTERNATIONAL LAW MARITIME LAW INTERNATIONAL BUSINESS ETHNIC COMMUNITY SERVICE CORPORATE LAW
• ARCHITECT
• LABORATORY TECHNICIANS
• MEDICAL DOCTORS NURSES AIDS
• INTERNATIONAL RESEARCH TEAMS
• LIBRARIAN CATALOGUING REFERENCES BIBLIOGRAPHERS
• SCIENTIFIC TRANSLATOR OR INTERPRETER
• GOVERNMENT INTERPRETER OR TRANSLATOR
1
• F.B.I. SPECIAL AGENT
• DEPARTMENT OF COMMERCE RESEARCHER AND FOREIGN COMMERCIAL OFFICER
• DEFENSE LANGUAGE INSTITUTE
• U.S.I.A. RADIO FREE EUROPE
• FOREIGN SERVICE OFFICERS
• U.S. TRAVEL SERVICE
• C.I.A. SPECIALIST
• ATTACHES
• DEPARTMENT OF DEFENSE
• OVERSEAS DEPENDENT SCHOOLS
• BUREAU OF NARCOTICS AND DANGEROUS DRUGS
• DEPARTMENT OF HEALTH, EDUCATION AND WELFARE COUNSELORS, SOCIAL WORKERS, MEDICAL PEOPLE MANAGEMENT, CLERK STENOGRAPHER
• AGENCY FOR INTERNATIONAL DEVELOPMENT
• IMMIGRATION AND CUSTOMS INSPECTORS
• OFFICE OF ECONOMIC OPPORTUNITY
• DEPARTMENT OF STATE
• ATTACHES
• INTELLIGENCE
• MISSIONS
• ADVISORY GROUPS
2
• OVERSEAS OFFICERS AND ENLISTED MEN
• WORK WITH ETHNIC TRAINEES
3
• LITERARY TRANSLATOR
• LITERARY RESEARCHER
• FOREIGN CORRESPONDENT
• TEXTBOOK PUBLISHER
• FILM PRODUCER
• JOURNALIST EDITORIAL STAFF ADVERTISING
• PERFORMING ARTS SINGERS ACTORS MUSICIANS
• PUBLISHING EDITORS PROOFREADERS BOOK DEALERS
• RECORDING
• ART DEALER
• CRITIC
• HOTEL MOTEL FRONT DESK SWITCHBOARD RESERVATIONIST RESTAURANTS
• AIRLINES STEWARDESS PILOT TICKET AGENT GROUND WORK
• EXCHANGE PROGRAM CO-ORDINATOR
• TOUR CONDUCTOR
• TRAVEL AGENT

Numerals 1, 2 and 3 provide location of career types in large circle. 1: Language as primary skill--must have to get job; 2: language as auxiliary skill--highly useful or required; 3: language as auxiliary skill--useful with other skills.

of whom were rejected because of insufficient language skills. Statements such as this will have more impact than any written or printed word from within the foreign language profession.

Exploration

On a more general level, an exploratory course as an "Introduction to Foreign Languages" can be offered, thus using a more indirect approach (32). This type of course provides a deeper appreciation of languages including one's own, and it explores cultural aspects such as nonverbal communication. The exploratory course provides a unique opportunity for early infusion of career options in the curriculum (19).

On a more advanced level of the exploration stage, specific information on the language(s) most needed and degree of competetence necessary for individual areas of employment is provided by the teacher and/or collected by the students. Classified ads in major newspapers provide a good starting point. Interviews with persons from the community, who are actively involved in the particular occupation studied, can yield valuable information. Some professional literature exists on the particular language skills needed for a particular occupation (Grandin, 23; Inman, 30). Typical job descriptions and requirements should be made available to the students. Role playing, interview techniques, and the format for applications, letters, and dossiers can be introduced.

An excellent publication, emphasizing fields in communications, services, and marketing, has been developed by the Uniondale Union Free School District, New York. The student is guided from the awareness to the exploration stages through 24 units that contain stated objectives, student activities, teacher activities, and implementation, evaluation, and additional resources (9).

Preparation

While the awareness, orientation, and exploration stages of career education deal with more general considerations, the preparation stage demands specific identification of levels of linguistic and cultural competence to be achieved and the necessary curricular changes needed to fulfill the objectives. Despite the considerable amount of material available to the foreign language teacher since 1970, statements on specific proficiency levels are either vague or nonexistent. In part this may be attributable to the fact that we have not had sufficient input from future employers about the specific skills needed and that we have to provide students with ancillary skills for a variety of fields, each with different linguistic needs. The most useful identification of proficiency levels has been established by the Foreign Service Institute (1). FSI Proficiency ratings are condensed in Figure 3.

FSI LEVEL	SPEAKING	READING
1. *Elementary Proficiency*	Usually referred to as "survival skills." Routine travel needs and minimum courtesy requirements.	Able to read some personal and place names, street signs, office and shop designations, numbers and isolated words and phrases.
2. *Limited Working Proficiency*	Able to satisfy routine social demands and limited work requirements.	Able to read simple prose, in a form equivalent to typescript or printing, on subjects within a familiar context.
3. *Minimun Professional Proficiency*	Able to speak the language with sufficient structural accuracy and vocabulary to participate in most formal and informal conversations on practical, social, and professional topics.	Able to read standard newspaper items addressed to the general reader, routine correspondence, reports and technical material in his special field.
4. *Full Professional Proficiency*	Able to use the language fluently and accurately on all levels normally pertinent to professional needs.	Able to read all styles and forms of the language pertinent to professional needs.
5. *Native or Bilingual Proficiency*	Speaking proficiency equivalent to that of an educated native speaker.	Reading proficiency equivalent to that of an educated native.

Figure 3. Summary of FSI Proficiency Levels for Speaking and Reading

The fact that most college majors rarely reach even the minimum professional proficiency level is sobering indeed. Whatever we promise to deliver in terms of ancillary skills, we must take this reality into consideration. Yet public expectation of what we can deliver takes no account of this reality as is evident from a recent statement by a superintendent, who, we can be certain is no exception: "A foreign language can be mastered in ninety days of instruction. Why require foreign language study in elementary, secondary, and college" (DeFilippis, 13, p. 143).

This total misconception of the nature of language study is also expressed in the perception of many members of the business community as reported in a 1978 survey of U.S. multinational corporations, (Inman, 30). That is not to say, however, that foreign language training offered in industry, either by in-house training or by commercial language schools, is necessarily inferior. Efficiency and success of such training in Europe, for instance, has been greater than in language training provided by secondary schools. Among reasons cited for this success were emphasis on communicative skills and constant use of media (Dill, 15).

Taking into account that even our most ambitious efforts in secondary school and college programs will not enable students to reach the FSI proficiency levels four and five (these could be goals for the specialization step of career education), we should identify those objectives within the reach of most typical foreign language programs. They are seen as optimal not minimal proficiency levels. At the end of a *secondary school* foreign language sequence with emphasis on career education the student should be able to:

1 identify careers in which foreign languages are useful as ancillary skills (see awareness, orientation, and exploration steps).

2 discuss the advantages of that skill for a particular career (more options, higher pay, better promotion possibilities, or overseas assignments).

3 discuss in general terms the training and education necessary for specific jobs as well as the life-styles resulting from such jobs.

4 find resources for locating positions and find information on the national and international job market.

5 actively seek employment (letters requesting information, letters of application, preparation for an interview, conduct during an interview, and compiling a dossier).

6 follow conversations on general topics in the target language with one or more individuals and in mechanical nonvisual transmission.

7 ask for directions, assistance, or service in the target language; engage in a conversation with one or more individuals on a general topic.

8 read popular material, maps, directions, information tables, and consumer manuals in the target language.

9 write a personal or business letter, a letter requesting information, a social letter (an invitation or a thank-you letter), a brief nontechnical report, and a specific description of an event (an accident).

10 express in the target language—orally or in writing—praise, criticism, uncertainty, sadness, disappointment, appreciation, anticipation, urgency of purpose (this is one of the objectives of the functional/notional approach to be discussed elsewhere).

11 identify different types of speech and different levels of writing in the target language.

12 function in social situations in the target country; adapt to conventions and formalities.

13 understand and accept cultural differences in life-style, manners, expectations, and aspirations in the target country.

14 identify social, political, and economic problems of the target country (see also topics under Culture Studies).

Excellent materials are available to help the teacher with guidelines, course content, and strategies to achieve some of these objectives (Dill, 14; Doerfler, et al., 16; Eddy, 17; Erickson and Holicky, 18; Fournier and Kuepper, 20; and Freeman, 22, adaptable conversation stimuli).

The response to the need for more career-oriented courses on the college level has been positive for the most part. A survey conducted in 1974 of 3,182 U.S. two- and four-year college and university foreign language departments (Born and Buck, 7) shows that most of the curricular innovations reported were in the career-related category (539 entries). The breakdown is as follows.

- Languages for the following professions:
    - translation and interpretation (78)
    - careers in science (77)
    - education: training for bilingual classrooms (32)
- Languages for business, commerce, and industry (133)
- Spoken language for health, law, and social services (157)
- Miscellaneous (62)

It should be remembered that in the five years since this survey was taken, interest in career education has greatly increased. Thus one can safely assume that the number of courses offered now would be significantly higher.

For advice on what constitutes "employability" of a college graduate, let us turn to a university placement advisor (Lo Brutto, 34). The "ideal" job candidate demonstrates leadership ability, sociability, communication skills and enthusiasm for a particular job. Certainly sociability and communication skills are emphasized in today's foreign language classroom. Other skills acquired while mastering a language are the ability to deal with the abstract, to analyze and synthesize large amounts of information, to deal with the unfamiliar, and to do intensive research. Particularly on the college level every effort must be made to emphasize to the students that these are "marketable," indeed crucial, skills and are applicable to every field. Graduates from the humanities, now in the business world, found that business requires the same problem-solving skills, tools of analysis, power of persuasion, and ability to withstand pressure that are learned in graduate school (10).

For the needs of the international job market, let us turn to the president of the American Graduate School of International Management (Voris, 53). Those who assume leadership in multinational corporations must couple their knowledge of international finance, marketing, accounting, and human behavior with an understanding of and appreciation for other cultures and must attain conversational levels in the appropriate languages. Voris (53) writes:

> Contrary to popular belief which touts the glamor of foreign assignment, working and living overseas is a very traumatic experience. . . . Obviously it is a major mistake for a multinational corporation to send an executive and his family into a foreign operation without carefully preparing the whole family for the experience (p. 19).

The most important requirements for overseas assignment are seen to be:

- Thorough knowledge of field(s) of expertise.
- Knowledge of politics, culture, religion, and economics of the region or country.
- A detailed conversational knowledge of the language of the region or country.

Voris summarizes:

> . . . if a multinational company wants to prepare its executives and their families properly to insure against expensive attrition and to guarantee optimum performance, a careful plan of education, training and development should be established. An executive should be well versed and up-to-date in his field of expertise. International dimensions should be added to his field. If he is a banker, an architect, or an accountant, he should be taught the international implications, aspects and technical variations of these particular fields before he goes. He should be immersed in the religion, culture, politics and economics of the area of the world where he will be sent. Much of this could be done through extensive reading, but nothing takes the place of face to face instruction by someone who has expertise in these fields. Most important, the executive and his entire family should be given as much instruction in language as they can absorb in the length of time that's necessary. If these three areas of concentration are conscientiously covered, the chances of success in a foreign environment are as near to being insured as is possible (pp. 21-22).

The significance of both cultural and linguistic competence is clearly stated here. Thus, in designing our curricula both aspects must be emphasized equally.

Trendota (49) describes a program for Executive German that can serve as a model for any other career-oriented foreign language program.

1 Solid undergraduate groundwork in basic grammar, vocabulary, and culture.
2 Introduction to business in terms, concepts, and practices as needed for translation, oral interpretation, document evaluation, and active company representation, e.g., at industrial fairs.
3 Development of skills in the consultation of reference materials and current periodicals.
4 Experiential learning (traineeship) with an international company at least during the interim semester.

The *Diplôme de Français* now offered at Eastern Michigan University requires the following competencies (Muller, 37).

1 Good knowledge of oral and spoken French.
2 Knowledge of the general and economic geography of France.
3 Knowledge of the techniques of commercial procedures and appropriate vocabulary.
4 Basic knowledge of French economics and French business law.

A test of German skills (*Zertifikat Deutsch*), developed jointly by the Goethe Institute and the Deutscher Hochschulverband and recognized by all Common Market countries, is increasingly used as an indication of students' proficiency levels. Rutgers University offers a Certificate of Proficiency in Translation (German/English). A similar program exists at Queens College in New York.

Some of the most successful programs are the international business options now offered at several institutions. The demands are rigorous and amount almost to a double major for the student (Slessarev, 45). In addition to the regular preparatory language courses, students at the University of Cincinnati, for example, enroll in:

1 A one-credit course covering career planning, résumé writing, interviewing, and basic self-analysis methods.
2 A four-month work/study program in Germany (this includes further classroom study in language and culture).
3 World Marketing, International Economics, and International Management (in addition to 63 credits of business courses).

For other helpful program descriptions of courses or programs designed to meet special needs, consult Born and Buck (7). Most of these programs require at least one faculty member with skills outside the field of foreign languages. Where such expertise is not available and cannot be acquired, a career-oriented but more general program might serve as an option. Wiley and Davidheiser's suggestions for such an option on the college or university level are quoted here with minor changes (58, pp. 35-36).

I Sophomore and Junior Level

A Conversation

1 *Discussion of careers requiring or enhanced by language proficiency.* The class studies materials on careers and adds new information as part of the assigned research. This topic allows students to explore opportunities for employment and to understand the significance of language study in specific fields.

2 *Explanatory and descriptive conversation.* This course encourages general discussions on basic topics, such as banking, finance, investment, travel, communication, medical care, employment procedures, and dossier preparation. Special attention is given to vocabulary and sentence structure.

3 *Study of social situations.* The class discusses and practices the forms required by convention in social and official life. Topics include introductions, invitations, telephoning, polite conversation, and formalities in entertaining.

B Advanced Grammar

1 *Analysis of language structure.* Various texts are analyzed, including literary selections, documents, reports, and professional articles. Structural comparisons develop an awareness of different styles and increase proficiency in the language.

2 *Practice in the composition of reports, articles, and original writing.* The course stresses the skill of writing and the improvement of vocabulary.

3 *Translation of English selections into the foreign language.* The students compare translations, analyzing the differences in vocabulary and grammar and contrasting the structure of the original and the translations.

C Correspondence

1 *Study of business letters written in the foreign language.* The students analyze model letters and compose similar correspondence. The course familiarizes the students with textbooks on business correspondence and pertinent reference works.

2 *Study of the personal correspondence of prominent twentieth-century foreign authors.* Attention is also given to the use of pertinent biographies and bibliographies.

3 *Practice in personal and business correspondence.* Students compose letters to friends, foreign business firms, and government agencies, such as consulates, embassies, and cultural institutes. The subject matter is varied, allowing for vocabulary expansion along diverse lines.

D Culture

1 *Study of selected events important in the cultural development of a selected foreign language area.* The focus is on events of the period prior to 1900, particularly social and political questions of the time. The course includes visual aids, various texts, and recordings.

2 *Study of a selected foreign language area in modern times.* Emphasis is given to geography and to the changing politics and social issues of the twentieth century.

E Survey of Literature

1 *Reading and discussion of literature written before 1800.* Attention is given to major authors and representative works.

2 *Reading and discussion of literature written after 1800.* This course focuses on the nineteenth century and the changes occurring in the literature of the early twentieth century.

II Senior Level

A The Media

1 *Analysis and discussion of news received from foreign countries.* This course stresses the comprehension of the spoken language.

2 *Evaluation of foreign language films.* The main emphasis is on comprehension of the spoken language.

3 *Student productions of radio plays and news broadcasts.* This course enables students to improve their oral command of the foreign language.

B Foreign Relations

1 *Study of immigration patterns* and the contributions of various groups in this country.

2 *Discussion of the literary contributions of authors* who have lived in the United States.

3 *Study of foreign scientists* who have contributed to modern life.

4 *Study of the relationship between English and other languages.*

C Contemporary Events

1 *Extensive reading of newspapers and magazines written in a selected foreign language.* This course enables the student to become better informed about current issues in a given country. Foreign films and talks by invited foreign guests supplement the course.

2 *Study of a foreign country or of countries sharing a common language.* This study includes the geography and the international role of the selected area.

3 *Study of the contemporary cultural life of a selected country.* This course familiarizes the student with the theatre, film industry, educational system, music, and art of that country. Lectures and films on cultural topics enrich this course.

D Specialized Vocabulary Studies

1 *Investigation of the specialized terminology used in various professions and occupations* including business, government, science, and music. This course stresses vocabulary development and familiarity with the pertinent dictionaries and reference works.

2 *A study of languages and occupations.* This course is combined with traineeships in cooperating firms that require personnel with foreign language proficiency.

According to Schulz (43) Spanish leads in developing career supportive foreign language instruction due to the obvious needs of areas with a large Spanish-speaking population. The most frequently offered courses are conversational courses for secretaries, law enforcement personnel, medical professions, and employees in the social service areas and the tourist industry. Schulz's survey indicates that, with some exceptions, most efforts are still concentrated on the elementary level. More institutions need to expand to upper levels as in the program described above. Regardless of the level or intensity and despite the small numbers of students who may be involved, according to Schulz, career-oriented courses have had a positive effect on departmental visibility on campus and in the community.

Specialization

Training for this step of career education usually cannot be offered in secondary school, perhaps not even on the undergraduate level in college. If we mean by "specialization" the use of language as a primary skill, then we refer to teaching, interpreting, and translating. Obviously special language training is necessary for the two latter occupations, usually not offered in a college program, although several institutions have recently introduced such programs.

Since the value of foreign languages as an ancillary skill is the topic here, discussion of foreign language at the specialization stage is limited to courses with specific and limited objectives. These are called Language for Special Purposes (LSP). Such courses feature limited skills and are presented in combination with or as preparation for vocational/professional needs. Whereas in the preparation stage the vocabulary is frequently subtechnical–that is, context independent works which occur with high frequency across disciplines (Cowan, 11)–courses in LSP use a specific set of lexical and syntactical items designed for specific performance competencies. Inman (30) cites two types of analyses used to determine the desired learning outcome. *Functional job analysis* is the analysis of specific vocational tasks the employee has to perform. The language proficiency need thus established is limited to the specific situation for which language is used. In *register analysis*, variations of language are analyzed according to use: 1) function or purpose, 2) mode (spoken or written), 3) style, and 4) province or specialty (White, 57). Sample texts are used for frequency counts of lexical and syntactical items. The problem facing the language teacher is that a functional analysis or a register analysis cannot be done without experts from the particular field–in other words *we* cannot identify the specific needs of LSP. Exceptions might be International Master of Business Administration Programs and in-house foreign language courses offered to company employees by foreign language faculty from nearby institutions or higher education.

Teaching the older or returning student

Giving official recognition to this new educational concern, the Lifelong Learning Act was authored and championed by then-Senator Walter Mondale and became law in October 1976. The so-called Lifelong Learning Project got under way in July 1977 and its first report under the title "Lifelong Learning and Public Policy" was submitted in February 1978.

Broadly seen, lifelong learning is defined as the process by which, in and out of school, individuals continue to develop knowledge, skills, and attitudes over their lifetime. The term does not refer to particular programs of study but rather to a perspective, namely the "cradle-to-grave" concept of education.

> The Lifelong Learning Act includes, but is not limited to, adult basic education, continuing education, independent study, . . . business education, occupational education, education for the retired, . . . educational activities designed to upgrade occupational and professional skills, to assist business, public agencies, and other organizations in the use of innovation and research results, and to serve family needs and personal development (12).

Obviously the study of foreign languages can be defended for many of these stages or areas of learning. The concept of lifelong learning should not be overlooked by the foreign language profession, particularly since it offers a variety of opportunities. While the enrollments of eighteen-year-olds on one end of the college stratum and the full-time graduate student at the other end are decreasing, participation of part-time students over the age of 55 increased by 55.2 percent between 1969 and 1975. (For ages 17-34 the increase was 38.1 percent.) Statistics reveal that while in 1970, 22 percent of the student population were adults, in 1975 that percentage had increased to 34 percent. Part-time enrollments increased in 1978 by 3.1 percent with women accounting for nearly all the growth (Magarell, 35). Total student enrollment in 1978 dropped by 60,000 students.

As lifelong learning increasingly becomes the basis for an intellectual reformulation of education, other social processes are at work, namely changes in career patterns.

- According to a College Board survey of a representative sample of the nation's twelve million adults between ages 16 and 65, 30 percent of those questioned considered themselves in some stage of career transition or job change at this time. The prediction is that the generation now in high school will have three different careers and seven different jobs.
- Flexible life scheduling: a cyclical life plan that alternates periods of work and education unlike the present linear life plan (Best, 3).
- Shorter workweek; extended vacations up to two months; flexitime; shared work, and part-time work.

All of these trends have one thing in common—namely, that people will spend less time working and more time in "leisure" activities, including education; even more important, they will need more than one skill to succeed. It is not surprising then to see 41.8 percent return for occupational reasons, 11.5 percent to get a new job, 27.7 percent to pursue a subject of personal interest, and 7.8 percent to enhance social life and recreation. Again, it is obvious that foreign languages can play a significant role in each of these categories.

Thirty-nine percent of all companies now offer after-hour programs for employees and the number is rapidly growing. Educational institutions have responded to the need in a variety of ways: decentralized campuses, weekend and evening courses, academic credit for work and other experiences, vouchers and learning contracts, programs for senior citizens, and nongraded informal studies. In foreign languages the number of programs, while still small, is increasing.

In Europe foreign languages for the adult learner are now a major growth industry. There are two main reasons for this: first, the continued unification of Europe beyond the economic and political realm and the fact that designation of a single language in the European economic community has been explicitly rejected (six languages now are "official"); second, the presence of imported laborers whose social, cultural, and political integration is essential. Much of the research on foreign languages for adults is now conducted in Europe, frequently under the auspices of the Council of Europe. Results of this research and the materials developed are of great importance to the American foreign language teacher and should be more frequently discussed and presented at conferences and in professional literature. The proposed "European" or "international" schools where lessons are taught in several languages can become models for the

United States. These are not conceived as new schools, but expansion of existing programs; teacher and student exchange programs will be subsidized to an even greater extent than they are now. The message from across the ocean is clear: English has not been and will not be accepted as "the common language" of Europe despite its worldwide importance. This message should not be ignored in the United States.

A European unit-credit system is being established through the definition of the so-called threshold level. The foreign language objectives are based on learners' needs and expressed in terms of operational learning objectives with reference to the roles the adult has to play, the settings in which he or she will have to function, and the situations likely to be encountered. The threshold level (T-level) is defined in: specific situations, language activities, language functions, behavioral specifications, and general and specific notions (Van Eck, 52). The approach to curriculum design emphasizes that courses must be learner-centered, motivation-based, and needs-oriented and must take the adult learner's social and educational disadvantages into consideration (Trim, 50).

Not only objectives and methods have to be adapted to the adult learner but also the temporal and spatial concepts of traditional education have to be altered. Strasheim (47) calls for education to move into union halls, management retreats, museums, libraries, playgrounds, and weekend colleges. The St. Louis Community College at Meramec had been successful in attracting senior citizens. Courses were taught at night on campus and also during the day at a senior citizen housing development (Kalfus, 33). Aspects of culture (of France, Germany, and Spain) were initially limited to topics such as foods, customs, scenic highlights, and education systems, with extensive use of media. Plans for the future include historic tours to ethnic areas in the community and a foreign film series with discussions on various cultural topics, e.g., growing up, the role of women, and war and violence. Instructors of this and other existing programs report that one of the major reasons for success is the high degree of motivation students bring to their studies. Whereas younger students have to be convinced of the value of foreign language study (and perhaps education in general), older students know its value (Strevens, 48), since they bring that four-letter word to class with them–*life.*

Some important points should be observed by the foreign language teacher working with the adult learner.

- Do not ask students to speak about themselves during the first periods. Allow their familiarity with fellow students to grow naturally and facilitate it at all times.
- Provide time during class for socializing–this is far more important in the getting-to-know-each-other process than anything the teacher can provide.
- Do not embarrass the students with excessive individual oral drill of a pronunciation problem; the older student is frequently even more self-conscious than the younger student.
- Emphasize communicative skills and "survival" skills.
- Use the adult's analytical skills for cognitive code learning; adults are frequently more receptive to that approach than the audiolingual.

- Use the principles of the functional/notional approach to limit the amount of lexical and syntactical items to be learned, i.e., observe a threshold or minimal competency level.
- Use selections from literature when appropriate; the adult's response to the literary mode tends to be more positive than that of the younger student.
- Start with contemporary issues when teaching culture; use the comparative and contrastive approach; do not make value judgments.
- Begin class with a "current events" segment using information they are likely to have obtained from the media as a starting point; encourage students to bring information to class–a kind of adult-level show-and-tell has proven to be a highly motivating activity; students become more informed and more involved in matters concerning their own country. (In one class students were shocked to learn that in one European country voter participation in national elections was three times the level of that of the U.S.; students who admitted to not having voted out of apathy did vote during the next election and admonished others to do so).
- Use students' background and experience to enrich the course.
- Avoid using regular school texts, since they frequently are too childish for the adult student; use newspapers, magazines, radio broadcasts, and films frequently. (As an example of a text designed for adults, see Neuner, et al., 38).
- Be flexible in conducting the class and assigning homework to allow students to work in areas of special interest.

Only a willing student can learn; this is particularly true for foreign languages. Since this willingness is frequently present in the adult learner, teaching such students can be one of the most rewarding experiences for a teacher. The willingness has to be reinforced by a sense of sharing and mutual respect–behavioral aspects which are essential in a class for adult learners. Teachers of all fields are discovering the joys of teaching the older student. Wilson (60, p. A-14) writes: ". . . older persons have a sense of proportion utterly lacking in most nineteen- and twenty-year-olds. They know whether something is new or just the most recent establishment on an old idea. They know how to use libraries. They can with confidence, call experts in fields they are investigating . . . They rarely waste their own time. Their criticism of classmates' work invariably is helpful."

Teaching strategy for special needs

Too many textbooks are designed to teach, in progressive minimal steps, elements of grammar, forms rather than meaning, structures the student cannot use, and lexical items stemming from a frequency list. More often than not this results in unnatural dialogues, artifical sentences, and boring pattern drills.

One step toward correcting this state of affairs has been the development of situational syllabi consisting of units like "Mailing a Package," "Shopping for

Food," or "Getting a Hotel Room." Based on the objective of teaching survival skills, this approach has merit in career-related and adult education courses as well as in the general introductory course. Westphal (56) correctly points to the disadvantage of the situational syllabi, namely, that the number of situations requiring a highly predictable use of language is very limited.

The use of functional/notional syllabi seems especially appropriate in the kinds of language courses for special needs described in this chapter. Wilkins (59, p. 18) writes in support of such an approach: "Instead of asking how speakers of language express themselves or when and where they use the language, we ask what it is they communicate through language. We are then able to organize teaching in terms of content rather than the forms of the language." Valdman (51) recommends that syllabus development, which stresses the use rather than the structure of the language, should be guided by five principles: 1) drastic reduction of the number of features introduced; 2) the use of cyclical rather than linear ordering; 3) the reduction of the complexity of the material presented; 4) reduction of variants and alternates; and 5) tolerance of learner errors. Inherent in these guidelines is the idea of the threshold level or minimal competence conceived as the level on which the learner is able to survive, linguistically speaking, in temporary contacts with foreign language speakers in everyday situations whether as a visitor to foreign countries or with visitors to his or her own country.

The functional/notional approach to language teaching has been a cooperative effort among a number of European educators. Both in Europe and the United States it has generated much support and opposition because of its semantic rather than structural base for language instruction. In the U.S., the highly significant and innovative principles underlying this approach have been given relatively little attention, although they might aid us in meeting the newly created needs of language teaching for a greater variety of purposes. Its importance has been recognized by educators working in the English as a second language field.

A brief description of the functional/notional approach may serve to clarify its relevance to trends in language education:

- It provides a general characterization of the type of language contacts in which the learner as a member of a certain target group will engage.
- It delineates the language activities in which the learner will participate.
- It anticipates the setting in which the learner will use the foreign language.
- It describes the roles (e.g., social and psychological) the learner will play.
- It delineates the topics with which the learner will deal.
- It describes what he or she will be expected to do or say with regard to each topic.

The general functions are described in the following manner.

- Imparting and seeking factual information
- Expressing and finding out intellectual attitudes
- Expressing and finding out moral attitudes
- Getting things done (persuasion)
- Socializing

Some of the practical functions are:

- Personal identification
- House, home
- Life at home
- Education and career
- Leisure time, entertainment
- Travel
- Relations with other people
- Health welfare
- Shopping
- Food and drink
- Services
- Weather

While the functional/notional approach provides for a convenient systematization of functions the learner is likely to perform and the language elements necessary to perform them, one wonders how far the profession can go in this type of approach before coming to a dead end. One wonders that the effect of this training will be for the study of literature, of stylistics, and for language study on the advanced level. Care must be taken so that the benefits of the approach are utilized, but also that we do not end up with enormous inventories of forms at the expense of aspects such as discourse analysis (Widdowson in Westphal, 56).

Since functional/notional syllabi and register analyses might not yet be available or are not easily translated into the concrete course contents, it might be helpful to use a list of the common purposes of language use and select those functions for which the student should develop communicative proficiency (Guntermann, 25).

Conclusion

Education must anticipate the future. Educating Americans for the future requires curricula designed to teach the general and the specialized, the humanistic and the pragmatic bodies of knowledge. These curricula must be based on the recognition that the twenty-first century for which we now educate students will require Americans with a better knowledge of the international community. Foreign language study should be closely linked to all efforts to internationalize American education. New and difficult tasks arise for the profession as a result. Increasingly we also must deal with educational trends, such as the graying of education, and social needs, such as greater career emphasis.

This chapter represents an attempt to show the interrelatedness of various recent developments and to explore the degree of readiness we have to offer at this point. It emphasizes our present strengths without ignoring our shortcomings. Specific recommendations for implementing changes are offered.

We must assess the needs of the society we serve and for which we at the same time provide leadership. We must increase our willingness to adapt to change. An honest assessment of competencies, resources, and support systems is essential before initiating any change. The design of special curricula to meet special needs must be accompanied by ongoing evaluation to assure self-renewal, academically sound programmatic changes, and effective teaching strategies.

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5

Realizing the potential, broadening the base

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Introduction

From now until the end of the twentieth century and beyond, the United States will have a growing need for citizens who can use other languages and understand other cultures. Yet at present, opportunities for learning foreign languages in this country are not growing but shrinking–and with them, perhaps as a direct result, our nation's position as an economic and political leader in the world is declining. Foreign language enrollments have suffered in part because traditional instructional programs have not satisfied the tastes nor met the needs of *all* students. For this reason, and also because of the enlarged arena in which language skills are now needed, new directions must be taken in the design of foreign language curriculum and instruction. This chapter will propose some departures from the rationale and methodology which characterized the typical school and college language programs of the 1970s.

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To what degree the growing need for multilingual, multicultural Americans will reach no one can foresee accurately. It is clear that citizens of this country will continue to play important roles in international diplomacy, both as representatives of our own national interests abroad and as intermediaries among

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other powers. International trade and finance will expand as increasing numbers of business firms recognize the vast potential markets that lie beyond our national boundaries, but our country's share in this expansion will depend upon the ability of American business personnel to communicate with non-Americans and to operate in other cultural environments. It is also obvious that, energy concerns and fuel shortfalls notwithstanding, international travel for purposes of education, business, and pleasure will continue to increase, bringing people of varied languages and cultures face to face in situations that demand communicative abilities. And English will not be the lingua franca in all such cases.

Language teachers have grown accustomed to having to counter the argument, "English is spoken everywhere I need to go." Even if this was true for many American travelers–and most of us would deny that it was–it will not long remain so under the influence of a startling current development in the rest of the industrialized world: a recent significant drop in foreign language enrollments in countries where English has traditionally been widely taught. The French deplore the decline in the study of foreign languages in general and the demise of Latin and Greek in particular. In West Germany, an alarming fall-off of interest in language study is reported: a newspaper article in the *Kieler Nachrichten* (4) at the end of 1978 described the foreign language situation in that country as "disastrous," noting that only 2 percent of secondary students were still being taught two foreign languages to the qualifying level, whereas only ten years earlier 50 percent of the students qualified in two foreign languages upon leaving secondary school. If this trend continues, how many Europeans will be able to speak English with us in the next generation?

This country has experienced a major decline in international prestige since the late 1960s, stemming in part from the political events of the Vietnam era and in an even more significant part from the waning strength of the dollar as the medium of exchange in international trade. When American technology was still the most advanced in the world, other nations were prepared to come to us for our goods and processes and to meet us on our own terms, even though they may not have liked or admired us. In recent decades, other nations have lost some of their respect for the dollar and with it their admiration for American business and enterprise and for the American way of life and thought in general. No longer is the "ugly American" accepted in spite of his offenses; people of other nationalities rightly expect us to meet them on their terms. The most important of these is the ability to communicate in the language spoken in *their* country, not *ours*.

The monolingual majority

Vast numbers of Americans pass through the educational system without acquiring any formal training at all in a foreign language. (One estimate suggests that this group may constitute up to 80 percent of the population.) While some of these persons have neglected to take advantage of available opportunities in their school and college curricula, many others have never even been given a choice because languages are simply not offered in their educational program. This population of "hard-core" monolingual Americans is swelled by the additional numbers of those whose exposure to the study of a foreign language was so brief, or so unsatisfactory, that they did not acquire sufficient fluency to use the language in any practical way.

From the viewpoint of the foreign language teacher, this population group represents a substantial market, i.e., a potential clientele that could become consumers if the foreign language product were attractively presented to them. The implications for the teaching profession are self-evident: if as few as one-fourth of the students who are not now learning languages could be induced to begin study, the result would be an overall doubling of enrollments. Furthermore, if these students were sufficiently satisfied by their experience to remain enrolled past the first or second year, progress in turning the tide of linguistic dependency and cultural chauvinism would have been made.

In terms of national priorities, correcting this lack of international perspective among our citizens represents a *political* as well as an *economic* need. Indeed, politics and economics are hardly separable in an era where economic productivity depends upon supplies of energy and source materials and the availability of markets for end products. In fact, an important portion of negotiations between national governments is in the domain of business and economic agreements, while at the same time the actions and policies of multinational corporations have a considerable effect on the political atmosphere in intergovernmental relations. So important is this interdependency of business and politics, that a 1977 report of the Task Force on Business and International Education of the American Council on Education (2) included the extensive special report of a Subcommittee on Education and International Business Diplomacy. The essence of this report is that success in business negotiations, whether at home or abroad, depends upon knowing how to deal with trade partners in ways that are socially and culturally acceptable.

The United States has forfeited its position as the leading exporter of some goods and will undoubtedly continue to give up leadership as an exporting nation, not because of a deterioration in the quality and appeal of our export wares but because of our failure to market them effectively. For generations, Americans have been insensitive to the fact that other cultures may not accept at face value the merits of American products, designed for American consumers, and promoted by entrepreneurs who are attuned only to American taste. If the next generation can be educated to cultural sensitivity, they will be able to deal more diplomatically in business relationships, and this should lead to a more satisfactory position for American enterprise in world markets. Thus, not only a few citizens will gain in education and cultural enrichment, but also the diplomatic, economic, and cultural strength of the whole nation will be enhanced.

Without a doubt a ready demand exists for some corrective to our nation's monolingualism, since individuals and firms are willing to spend large sums for intensive courses in the commercial language schools, for agency translations of business correspondence, or for gadgets such as the electronic translating dictionaries, designed like small pocket calculators, which appeared on the market in 1979. Unfortunately, these sorts of devices and approaches are typical of Americans' tendency to regard foreign languages as an inconvenience which should be avoided as long as possible and then surmounted by a brief but expensive investment of time or technology. Stopgap solutions can only lead to further dissatisfaction, frustration, and antagonism toward the foreigner and his or her language.

Limited learning opportunities

A graph of foreign language study opportunities in the past two decades would show an irregular pattern of peaks and valleys. During the period following passage of the National Defense Education Act, the availability of programs climbed from a deplorable shortage to a commendable level–at least in the major European languages. The NDEA decade of the 1960s ended with a pattern of sliding enrollments and disappearing programs that forced the language teaching profession to muster its best initiatives to stave off the demise of language study in some schools altogether. Learning to cope with adversity meant developing every imaginable alternative to attract volunteer students and thus compensate for the abolishment of language requirements. We succeeded in holding the line in some places and even in posting some gains in others.

Now, on the threshhold of the 1980s, programs are being curtailed sharply again in the face of shrinking student registrations, and in some places even despite strong enrollments. Unlike the similar moves a decade ago when students applied pressure to review curricular requirements, this time the cause is primarily fiscal: foreign language programs are being scrutinized by experts in cost analysis and are often found too expensive to maintain. Today, any elements in the curriculum deemed nonessential are likely to be curtailed as increased overhead costs collide with the budgetary shortage arising from present or anticipated declines in enrollments throughout institutions, with the resultant drop in both tuition revenues and public subsidies.

When resources are in short supply, as is clearly the case in education today, administrators apportion them by criteria that are at least partly political: they ask what pattern of emphasis in the distribution of public education funds will best satisfy the taxpaying public while at the same time meet the demands of educational experts for quality and balance in the curriculum. If neither the public in general nor the professional educators as a specific influence group recognize and acknowledge the need for languages and international education, then foreign language courses will be sacrificed in the interest of maintaining programs that are considered more basic, more socially relevant, more pertinent to the students' career aspirations, or more essential by some other measure. Unless *both* public opinion *and* administrative policy can be brought to acknowledge the personal and national need for foreign languages and international studies, these programs will continue to have a difficult outlook under the pragmatism existing today.

A number of potential students may have access to some language study program, typically in one of the more common languages, but may find nothing available in the specific language they seek. The final draft report of the Modern Language Association/American Council of Learned Societies Task Force on the Less Commonly Taught Languages notes that those languages other than English, French, German, Italian, Latin, and Spanish are spoken by more than 80 percent of the world's population. Yet they represent a mere one percent of the secondary foreign language enrollments in this country, and only 10.2 percent of postsecondary enrollments. Since students in courses in less common languages are concentrated in a relatively small number of programs, a minimum number of learners have any access at all to such widely used languages as Arabic, Chinese, Japanese, Russian, Hindi, Urdu, Indonesian, Portuguese, Hausa, and Swahili. Consequently, most Americans whose travels or business activities include contact with nations where these languages are spoken are dependent on the goodwill of bilingual members of the foreign culture who can communicate with them in English. In short, even with the best of intentions, most Americans have no opportunity in this country to learn these languages.

Among the arguments voiced by opponents of language study is the declaration that it is not cost efficient for Americans to learn languages in a conventional educational system. Somehow, it is assumed, their isolation from other cultures deprives Americans of an ear attuned to the sounds and structures of languages other than English. (This ignores, of course, the daily situation of the millions of English-speaking citizens surrounded by the sounds of Spanish.) So, the argument runs, it is more difficult for Americans to learn other languages than for native speakers of other tongues to learn English. This is patently a lazy excuse for not making the effort or expending the time needed to learn a foreign language thoroughly and well; human nature being what it is, Americans are probably no different from any other nationality in preferring the promise of a brief and easy path to the difficult goal of fluency. People from the business community, for instance, tend to arrive in their careers without foreign language skills because they are graduates of degree programs that do not require language study; this is in itself a result of a long-perpetuated tradition among business people of patronizing short-term courses in the commercial language schools when an immediate need arises. Of course, when the learner fails to acquire real fluency under such a regimen, he or she must immediately fall back on the services of an interpreter or the bilingualism of a foreign business counterpart. In the long run, American international business personnel are no more satisfied with the results of commercial language school instruction than they are with the traditional language offerings of the schools and colleges. However, they do tend to regard the commercial courses as the lesser evil, if only because such instruction demands less of a time investment than the two-year or longer college courses. Many business college faculties continue to advise their students against studying foreign languages in college, urging them instead to fill our their programs with additional business skill courses, and arguing that a language can be picked up quickly later when and if it is needed.

Reaching the broader clientele

Having looked at some of the sectors of the American populace who are not attracted by the existing foreign language offerings in the regular secondary and tertiary educational system, let us consider some possibilities for reaching this heretofore untouched clientele.

First, a revision in our marketing techniques is needed. Potential language students, whether members of the regular student populace or adults returning for continuing education, respond most readily to pragmatic arguments in an age where myriad demands on and appeals to their time necessitate a stringent selection of activities. Most citizens, rightly or wrongly, think of education today as preparation for a career; even the traditional liberal arts education is widely understood–or misunderstood–as job training. The student then plans a curriculum with a view of what may be useful later on the job. Depending heavily upon the suggestions of advisors and peers, he or she avoids courses whose career relevance is not immediately evident. Also shunned are courses that demand a heavy commitment of time and effort over a longer term and that carry a real risk of poor achievement and consequently poor grades. For students who are guided by these considerations, the old standard arguments in defense of language study–that it contributes to the development of a better person, that it is an essential element in a liberal education, that it inevitably generates a better understanding of one's own language–have little real meaning. The notion of a liberal education tends to be discounted by a populace distrustful of the educational establishment because of what it sees as the schools' failure to train younger people in basic skills and to educate them in morality.

To those citizens who cannot see any personal benefit in language study, our offerings must be sold on the basis of need. A demonstration of how multilingual skills can lead to tangible rewards must be conducted for the learner. This means identifying increased professional opportunities and measurable monetary benefits that accrue to the bilingual job-seeker in preference to the monolingual candidate. Students must also have opportunities for successful encounters with speakers of other languages, particularly through programs that add a working internship abroad to the conventional study tour in a foreign country. Students returning from programs abroad, in which a *study phase* devoted to intensive advanced language and culture instruction is followed by a *work phase* in the local economy, often report that they have learned more about language usage through practical application on the job than in the formal study experience.

The many articles which have appeared in the foreign language teachers' professional journals since about 1975 concerning the demand for language skills as a career qualification are attempts at identifying these benefits for teachers and learners. Longer essays have also enumerated the varieties of professions in which foreign language knowledge can be useful or necessary. A first major contribution was Honig and Brod's (3), now somewhat dated but still generally useful, which illustrated employment opportunities in business, civil service, education, law, library science, media, science, service, social sciences, and travel and tourism—as well as teaching, interpreting, and translating in which foreign language knowledge is the primary qualifying skill. A more recent assessment is that of Bourgoin (1), who adds to the earlier general job categorizations an identification of specific agencies that can provide further information, as well as potential employers of the multilingual candidate. Chapter 4 of this volume deals in more detail with foreign language as an ancillary skill.

Among the monolingual populace there are additional numbers who might willingly choose to study foreign languages not for professional enhancement but for personal interest. Among the student generation this includes those who are descended from a recognized ethnic heritage and who would like to learn the language of their roots even if it cannot be coordinated with their major course of studies. There are also numerous students whose interest has been whetted by an encounter with samples of a foreign literature in English translation, the works of an artist or philosopher, or even the discoveries or inventions of a scientist. Still others hope to travel or even to live abroad and would gladly commit themselves to language study if it could be fitted into their schedules. The very same motivations are present in numbers of mature adults, who missed the opportunity for language learning in their own schooling but would now be willing to undertake this study in anticipation of travel or because of intellectual curiosity.

The language teaching profession must discover how to appeal to these various learners on the basis of achievement, satisfaction, and convenience, not of pedantry. Self-motivated learners will tolerate no approach that seems to cater more to the demands of erudition than to their wishes. A slow and laborious struggle in the elementary course through all the variations of verb tenses, including some which are seldom used in contemporary communication, will have little more appeal for these learners than an intermediate course that insists on teaching language usage through monuments of earlier literature. One of the most serious detractions from the continuing allegiance of the self-motivated learner, particularly of the adult in a continuing education program, is the length of time required to achieve a minimum usable knowledge of the language. This is normally measured in *years* of study, and amounts to at least two or three.

Perhaps administrators and teachers of academic language programs should observe closely the continuing market appeal of the commercial language schools and borrow some of the strengths of their system, such as the intensive nature of the training. Dartmouth College has done this by offering its students an intensive course that accelerates fulfillment of the college's language requirement by doubling the normal pace of instruction. Other institutions, which have short "winterim" terms in January or accelerated summer schedules, use these abbreviated sessions to offer intensive immersion language courses with three, four, or more hours of contact daily. Students are not enrolled for any other course at the same time. In such a brief but strenuous exposure, rapid progress is possible. If the end achievement is to endure, however, the fluency gained through such an approach must be maintained and buttressed by continuous learning in the normal term.

Unconventional timetables are probably impractical for most secondary schools. A variation might be possible which would fit within the constraints of normal scheduling and still draw some benefit from the doubled exposure and consequent reinforcement effect. High schools offering a two-year language sequence might experiment with an intensive-year program as their normal foreign language course. This would consist of *two* class periods daily for one year, instead of *one* daily period for two years. It would be preferable to schedule each of the two class periods some hours apart, e.g., early morning and early afternoon, to allow for better absorption, rest, and recuperation from one class session to the next rather than a single two-hour stretch.

The potential benefits of such a schedule are manifest. Learning could progress at a much faster pace than at present, resulting in an abbreviation of the frustrating initial weeks in which students feel they have acquired too little language to put to use. The annoying summer hiatus in the middle of the elementary material would be eliminated, along with the present need for an extensive review at the beginning of the second year. The course could accommodate students from many different grade levels. It would offer seniors the equivalent of a present two-year high school course or more; sophomores and juniors in a three-year system who completed the course would have the possibility of fitting in a third and even a fourth level continuation. In fact, some sort of continuation course, at the very least in the form of a tutorial maintenance program, should certainly be offered to those who complete this intensive course before their senior year, so that they would not lose their language skills before reaching college.

Some scheduling modifications would also be appropriate in updating the adult education courses in foreign languages in some schools and colleges. Typical extension schedules list language courses in the evenings (to accommodate working people), with one meeting of two to three hours duration per week. This schedule suffers from a sparsity of contact hours as well as the long interval between class meetings. In the week-long hiatus several mishaps can occur: the learner may misunderstand the assigned material and persist in the misunderstanding for lack of prompt feedback from the teacher; other pressures may keep the student from working regularly through the week, so that each class session is essentially a cold start; worst of all, the student may lose track of the course altogether because of the long break between sessions, may lose interest in the material, and finally may give up completely on the project. In fact, this does happen with distressing frequency in adult education courses which are notorious for their low rate of completion.

For some adult learners, those who spend their working life at home instead of in the outside marketplace, a simple adjustment in the regular daytime course schedule can supply a more satisfactory alternative. Courses could be scheduled in two-hour blocks on two days a week (typically Monday or Tuesday, and Thursday), perhaps augmented by recordings for home review, in order to appeal both to regular on-campus students and to extension students who prefer not to sacrifice their evenings. Especially if these two-hour blocks were scheduled to fall between 9 a.m. and 3 p.m. for the sake of parents with children of school age, the courses might reach a substantial adult clientele. A lending library of carefully composed audio cassettes for use by the automobile commuter, or even video cassettes for home review, would round out the course. This combination of expanded schedule and home study aids would offer the student a reasonable possibility of achieving a usable command of the language within an acceptable length of time.

For the extension student whose only free time is evenings or weekends, and who is reluctant to devote more than one evening or Saturday morning a week, the answer may be home video-cassette courses (probably for rent or loan rather than purchase), with conversational practice sessions scheduled once a week for the enrollees as a group. The teacher might offer telephone consultation service in order to improve the effectiveness of the students' home preparation.

Priorities for the eighties

A second MLA/ACLS committee, the Task Force on the Commonly Taught Languages, issued a draft statement in 1978 that contained three goals which should guide the language-teaching profession in the 1980s.

- All students in American schools should have the opportunity to study at least one foreign language.
- Every American college graduate should be able to read and converse in a foreign language.
- All adults in the United States should have readily available opportunities to acquire or improve knowledge of a foreign language.

The Task Force report contains 21 specific recommendations for action toward the achievement of these goals. The most important of these are proposals for:

- Developing an outline of realistic proficiency goals by achievement stage
- Providing curricular models
- Designing programs for maintenance of language skills are acquired
- Controlling the quality of study-abroad opportunities
- Offering a variety of workshops and conferences that should focus on essential problems in the teaching of elementary and advanced language courses, and history and civilization

Ideally, each American should have access not only to one of the common languages (French, German, Italian, Latin, or Spanish) but also to any language which he or she individually prefers. Given the present state of the language-teaching art, that ideal is far from being realized. A first essential would be to create more readily portable and adaptable materials less dependent on the presence and interpretive skills of the teacher as are today's classroom-oriented textbooks. This need could be met in part by textbooks with better explanations and better indices than are now available, and which are designed with the self-study learner in mind. Instructional courses that make use of old and new technology, such as audio and video recording, should be redesigned for self-instruction by incorporating better means for access.

For younger learners, FLES should be reinstituted, eventually in all schools but initially at least in "magnet" systems. For the neo-FLES movement to be more successful than its forbear, pupils must have the prospect of continuing their foreign language learning beyond the initial two, three, or four years by entering into a middle school and secondary program that provides at least maintenance opportunities.

None of these hopes can come to realization unless our country establishes a national language policy, radical in nature and thorough in its commitment. It is widely hoped that the recommendations of the President's Commission on Foreign Language and International Studies will lead to the formulation and adoption of a policy, and that this policy will target realistic levels of achievement and promise to underwrite the costs of large-scale instructional programs by means of continuing public funding, recognizing the long-term benefits of better national language capabilities.

To support such a policy, a fundamental reversal of our public attitude toward other nations and peoples must take place. An enlarged awareness of the importance of linguistic and cultural diversity would be a step toward setting our national xenophobia to rest and increasing our goodwill toward foreign peoples, their ideas, and expressions. Many of the projects undertaken by ACTFL and the other language teachers' organizations, especially the institution of a nationwide Foreign Language Day with strong local participation in special events, are contributing to this cultural awakening. Many more efforts of this type must be raised.

Imperative: Redefining current programs

How much can be achieved by a revision or redefinition of present programs? Any attempt to reach those citizens who are not now attracted to foreign language study must address the multitude of special interests and motivations not served by current approaches to language teaching. Whatever the potential learner may foresee as a future use for language skills, he or she will surely need the capability for communication, either as a transmitter or as a receiver, either through the oral or the written medium. Reading skills must be taught to all who will travel abroad, or who intend to seek information or read for pleasure in foreign language publications. Some persons will need to communicate by letter, and for these the opportunity to attain writing skills must be offered. Communication is the key: the primary concentration of instructional programs in the coming generation must be on communicative competence in order to serve the needs of Americans who will confront speakers of foreign languages in the course of international business negotiations, diplomatic contacts, radio and television communications, their own travels abroad and dealings with foreign nationals traveling in this country, and in public-contact or service professions in geographical areas where large proportions of the populace speak a native language other than English.

The requirement for increased oral practice can be met by incorporating into the syllabus more expressive/inventive conversational exercises, in which the learner is encouraged to speak freely and fluidly, even though with some errors. The valuable practice effect of free verbal expression in the earliest stages of study was overlooked in the heyday of audiolingualism, when the risk of erroneous learning was thought to outweigh the rewards of creative verbalization. In fact, the learner can be encouraged to explore the frontiers of vocabulary and structure while discovering the limits of his or her own expressive ability. The role of the teacher in this model is to design conversational circumstances, preferably in small groups of students with the teacher as coparticipant, and then to serve as a coach, guide, consultant (a living "dictionary" and reference grammarian), who is responsible both for correcting usage and for keeping the conversation going. Students will learn more from carefully designed communication sessions, and in a shorter time, than they do from the oral performance of structured grammatical exercises with no context.

For written practice to foster genuine communication skill, it needs to include much composition work on controlled, limited topics. Early written assignments should be restricted in scope and designed to avoid overreaching the available vocabulary and the students' grammatical sophistication. In the transition to free expression, writing exercises should avoid imposing the double jeopardy which the student sometimes feels when the assignment forces a struggle both with what is to be written (the *content*) and how it is to be written (the *expression*). A useful step in the advancement to real written communication can be accomplished through a class-to-class exchange of letters, particularly if this can be conducted by mail across some distance so as to preclude any contact by telephone in English. The letters can be used as a class project in conversation and composition, to play games involving guessing identities or the answers to questions, to transmit information, or even to enact a simulation of political or business negotiations (an exchange of government policies on energy, for instance, or the conduct of an import-export relationship between two commercial firms).

Today's monolingual majority would be more strongly attracted to tomorrow's language programs, if reading texts were composed and chosen with a focus on informative, instructive, contemporary content. High school texts and most elementary materials for college have properly made the shift away from literature to "culture." Yet in the intermediate and advanced college courses, the readings and course content tend to settle into what a majority of college teachers have viewed for generations as the primary reason for learning foreign languages: the study of literature. Some profess that literature is the best avenue to language acquisition, though they may be ignoring the fact that the literature of earlier periods is petrified in an idiom which is no longer used today. Others espouse the study of literature as the only justification for including the offerings of a foreign language department in a liberal arts college. Still others unabashedly teach literature because that interests them more than the teaching of language as a medium for contemporary communication. Whatever the reasons, only a minority of the language departments in American colleges and universities see a part of their mission as teaching a foreign language through its cultural history and current affairs to students who wish to integrate this knowledge with their other academic pursuits and personal interests. Some institutions have signalled a modified stance by renaming their departments of languages and literatures to departments of, e.g., French, Germanic, or Hispanic Studies. These departments have usually not abandoned the traditional literary orientation of their programs, but offer a second alternative in course combinations with emphasis on the arts, business, diplomacy, social sciences, law, natural sciences, or technology. These variations mark a recognition of foreign language and area studies instruction as a *service* component in the curriculum, without denying the continued importance of the language/literature combination for a limited clientele.

Colleges and universities could accommodate a redesign of this kind more widely, but not without far-reaching retraining of their faculties. Most college language professors are products of several generations of scholarship in literature–and in some cases linguistics–and cannot easily become teachers of sociology, economics, or current politics of some other part of the world. Smaller departments in particular, which may have only one or two persons in a given language, can hardly offer both courses of study, one based on the traditional literary/aesthetic approach and the other on a contemporary communicative/pragmatic one. The limits of faculty energy and resources clearly preclude this. It must be recognized that the more promising future, as measured by potential program size and enrollments, is probably on the side of the service-oriented contemporary curriculum.

Integration and interdisciplinary programs

The time is ripe for foreign language teachers to strive for integration with their colleagues in other disciplines rather than perpetuate isolation. Interdisciplinary studies programs are a timely corrective to the rigid academic specialization characteristic of so much of the education of earlier generations. Foreign language instruction can contribute to the social studies offerings in elementary schools, and it should be regarded as an essential component in coordinated and integrated curricular packages in secondary and postsecondary education. Still under the banner of *social studies* in high schools, but now called *area studies* in college catalogs because it comprises more than just the social sciences, these programs should draw upon the varied expertise of specialists in economics, government, history, and languages, as well as literature and the arts. At the high school level, interactive instruction can enhance the effectiveness of each component part, even though this whole combination is only a small element in the student's general curriculum. At the college and university, the greater depth and breadth of course offerings can lead to opportunities for interdisciplinary majors in, e.g., Asian Studies, or German Studies, or Latin American Studies, modeled after the special-interest programs in fields such as Black Studies and Women's Studies which were developed in the 1960s. For students who do not pursue the entire course concentration and achieve a degree in the interdisciplinary field, the existence of an integrated program and a unified catalog of offerings may encourage the decision to take more than one course in the field.

Even if the President's Commission report urges more attention to interdisciplinary programs, it will probably be up to the foreign language teachers to take the initiative and make the overtures in establishing cooperation with their colleagues in the other specialties. It must be made clear that our wish is to coordinate efforts in a way which will lead to mutual support; we have no intention of usurping the responsibility of others to teach and study in their own fields of specialization.

In secondary school programs, where special topics such as the economic or governmental systems of certain countries can only be treated in brief units rather than whole courses, team efforts to work up coordinated syllabi are imperative. The foreign language teachers will need to approach the teachers of government, history, and other fields in order to determine the timing and nature of their treatment of the countries or world areas in question. Then the language teachers can prepare to teach the pertinent concepts and vocabulary at the right time, and they may be able to arrange with their colleagues for occasional combined classes, guest lectures, or teaching exchanges.

Several variations on the interdisciplinary design are possible at the college level, depending on the resources available. In one successful model, responsibility for the baccalaureate major programs in area studies is retained in the respective language departments, which dictate the proportion of courses from outside departments and the specific courses—limited to those with a sharp focus on aspects of the respective geographical area—which may be taken in partial fulfillment of the area studies major. It is wise to assemble an interdisciplinary faculty committee to take charge of such a program. It oversees the progress of students and can move to protest threatened cancellation of courses by departments that overlook their importance. One degree program in German Studies at the University of Cincinnati, offered as an alternative by a German department which also grants a degree in German literature, has grown to be the more popular of the two options by far. Students there elect two outside disciplines in which they earn a concentration of German-related credits, choosing from among economics, history, political science, art history, music history, and other fields. The most favored combination has come to be history and political science, particularly for students who hope to enter careers in international business. Within the sponsoring German Department, the foundation of this program is a year-long course sequence entitled "The German-Speaking World

Today," an intermediate course open to nonmajors as well, which introduces rudiments of contemporary economics, politics, and society in the major German-speaking countries, on the basis of readings, lectures, and discussions in German. Aspiring graduates in this German Studies program must prepare an interdisciplinary senior paper on some aspect of the contemporary German scene. The paper, which draws upon their inter- as well as intradepartmental studies, serves as a final criterion for graduation.

Less commonly taught languages: A special need

Let us return briefly to the less commonly taught languages, those which are seldom offered in the American academic system and whose social and cultural bases also may tend to be neglected in the curriculum. The inattention to these languages in American education is due not to a lack of importance on the world scene but to a variety of factors peculiar to our country's cultural, educational, and social history. Since few persons have had opportunities in the past to study these languages, we have an acute shortage of qualified teachers. Consequently, with a very small lobbying group as compared to that of the major European languages, they have little chance to promote their cause in a quasi-democratic system where support goes to those with the loudest or most numerous voices. Furthermore, the firmly entrenched position of French, German, and Spanish in the curriculum is supported by the ethnic ancestry of many Americans. Most important of all, languages and cultures which are further removed from the Indo-European (and more specifically, Western European) tradition on which the cultural history of the American white majority is based are viewed as more "foreign," more "exotic," more remote from daily thought than are the three major languages and a few of their smaller cousins. Hence, the uncommonly taught languages are perceived as more difficult to learn, more alien in their patterns and vocabularies, and more risky to undertake. The attraction is weakest for those languages whose phonologies and writing systems are most different from those of the learner's native language, or whose speaker's cultural distinctions are accentuated by raciophysiological features which contract sharply with those of the learner. The great American xenophobia begins with a sensitivity to physical distinctions, feeds on cultural variations which place the assumed universal validity of "the American way" in question, and culminates in a distrust of foreign-sounding and foreign-looking speech and writing.

The MLA/ACLS Task Force on the Less Commonly Taught Languages recommended in 1978 a series of very specific measures designed to overcome the special resistance to the study of these languages. The Task Force asserted these statements in support of its recommendations:

- that the training of persons proficient in less commonly taught languages is essential to the economic, political, scientific, and cultural interests of the United States;

- that the study of such languages can also be of value to the educational development of any individual who pursues it;
- that special, centralized efforts are necessary to make the study of such languages accessible and affordable to any interested student, and to achieve wider public recognition of their importance;
- that public support for the study of these languages must be strengthened and expanded.

The recommendations of the Task Force are supportable and essential; indeed, they represent a minimum program for opening American thought to the larger world.

Conclusion

In summary, the United States of America must move to outgrow its linguistic and cultural chauvinism, a part of the heritage of two centuries of geographical isolation which has long since been laid aside in fact by the realities of jet-age travel and instant electronic communication. As foreign wares and commodities touch the lives of all Americans today, foreign languages should be available to all Americans tomorrow. Opportunities for study, mastery, and application of languages must be provided for all citizens.

We also need to establish realistic expectations and tangible rewards. The public still operates under two delusions, believing alternately that it is impossible and impractical for Americans to learn the other tongues of the world, and that there must be some quick and easy formula that will grant speedy fluency when the need arises. Since the latter assumption is no more true than the former, we are left with the opportunity and the obligation to streamline the instruction of languages in order to deliver the best possible achievement for the learner, making efficient use of time. Several particulars can enter into this rationalization.

It will be necessary to assess the styles and vocabularies of various registers of language, with special attention to the frequency of use of constructions and vocabulary, in order to concentrate our instruction on those elements which will be potentially most useful in specific fields. In particular, scientific analysis of the relative frequency of tenses, cases, and other linguistic details will help teachers focus their efforts on the aspects which are most cost efficient for the learner. (Here time and effort are the major components of cost, and efficiency is the quotient of these factors divided into the learner's level of communicative achievement.)

Programs must be revised to provide the learner with continuing feedback, the reassurance that he or she is making perceptible progress in a skill which permits increasingly advanced participation in acts of communication.

Finally, but first among the ultimate priorities, we need a nationwide recognition of the international world, and an awareness that we are only one of the peers in the partnership of nations and peoples. Whether based on public policy or private convictions, this fundamental change in attitude will be the only way to make the rigorous task of language mastery palatable to a majority of Americans.

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Acting on the realities in second-language education

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Second-language instruction: Communication vs. academic exercise

As one analyzes the continued decline in the priority of language instruction, both first and second languages, it becomes evident that a major force in that decline is the assumption that language instruction is no different from any traditional body of content—that it *is content* to be mastered as an end in itself. Since language really is a medium of communication, communication and not content must be the focus of all behavior related to language instruction, its preservation and development. Without purpose, without focus on human communication, the future of language instruction is bleak.

The experience of the past has clearly demonstrated the devastating consequences to the field of language study when language is treated as academic discipline and training devoid of purpose and meaning. One might recall the primacy of the study of Latin, Greek, and Hebrew when these languages served as the vehicle of communication for scholars. Mastery of the classical languages served as the key to natural philosophy, mathematics, literature, and scholarly discourse. The emergence of the phenomenon of general education with its focus on derivative rather than primary sources, as well as the emergence of recently organized bodies of content, negated reliance on classical languages as the primary mode of communication. As a result, the conceptual frame of

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reference for these languages changed. Latin, Greek, and Hebrew were dubbed "dead languages" appropriate for study by connoisseurs of the antique, a vehicle by which pedants might demonstrate their elitest sway over the "vulgar folk."

Language as a political tool

The waxing and waning of the fortunes of instruction of indigenous languages in French Canada, the Republic of Ireland, Wales, and Scotland provide contemporary examples of the political and cultural determinants of the conceptual frame for language instruction and its relation to the imperative of a communication focus. As a result of many years of British occupation, Irish, the language of the native population, almost became extinct except for a few geographic regions where English was not the basic vehicle of communication for commerce and for the acquisition of membership in status groups.

As a result of the Irish political and literary revival, the study of Irish was required at all levels of study with special honors and inducements for scholars of the language. Then when the requirement of achieving a passing grade in Irish was eliminated for the attainment of the Leaving Certificate, the study of Irish experienced a decline. To the outside observer it seems that making Irish a required subject in a school program taught as any other academic areas has been almost as devastating to the survival of the language as hundreds of years of British occupation.

Wales and Scotland have considered requiring the formal study of these indigenous languages in their schools. Recognizing the key role played by language in the development of a national identity, the language requirement is a political issue rather than a purely educational one. It is to be hoped that the enthusiasts for Welsh and Gaelic will not snuff out the potential for language learning by traveling the traditional route of reorganizing a dynamic vehicle for communication into a static body of logically organized academic content. That distinguished Irish playwright, G.B. Shaw, demonstrated his wisdom and understanding when he forbade the inclusion of his plays in school texts. He foresaw that the study of his plays in schools would extinguish his potential theater audience. He believed that a traditional academic treatment would remove the vitality of the plays.

The commitment of French Canada to its language as a primary vehicle for communication provides a centrality to its political life. The vitality of the language in Quebec is a result of its critical role in the communication process rather than that of an academic exercise.

Second language teachers are not alone in the need to resolve the dilemma caused by the seemingly inevitable impulse to restructure the content of language from that of a vehicle for the communication of data, ideas, questions, and feeling, to that of a logically organized body of content subject to analysis. In first language, attempts to organize content have come close to obliterating the study of the vernacular. Our treatment of language as a historic body of content has rendered it devoid of any function other than that of academic exercise. The perception of language teacher as pedant has brought about a decline in the perception of language teacher as an authoritative model. A bored and frustrated constituency has turned to experience as the sole determinant of the validity for usage and meaning; hence, the state of deterioration of language as a vehicle for communication and meaning.

Irony of decline

As Edward Scebold, ACTFL executive director, has pointed out, "It's a strong irony; when the United States is more internationally involved than ever before, language studies have declined" (10, p. 217). In addition to international involvement, interest in foreign travel, intercultural contact, and ethnic heritage is growing. Perhaps this irony is a product of loss of faith in language instruction by citizens, parents, and students who after years of language study in public and private schools are unable to communicate in a second language.

The nature of the dynamic that permits the communication of meanings to emerge should be addressed. Communication and meaning produce passion and commitment—essential ingredients if either first- or second-language instruction is to survive.

A venerable axiom of curriculum workers is that teachers relate to students in the same mode that school administrators relate to teachers. If administrators treat teachers autocratically, teachers tend to adopt the same mode of behavior with their students. School climate, a vital part of the learning setting, is in a large measure a reflection of the administrative staff's view of its role in relation to the teaching staff. A laissez-faire attitude on the part of a school principal, for example, is frequently reflected in the classroom climate in that principal's building. This axiom can be extended to make the point that the dynamic employed by teachers in the instructional process with students is the same dynamic to be employed as teachers function within the education institution as well as in other dimensions of both the social and political spheres. Teachers have the power to become an enormously potent force when they utilize the fund of knowledge existent among the members of the teaching profession relating to the creation of a potentially productive environment. The skills of the teacher are valuable beyond the traditional sphere of the classroom and transferable to many realms of human activity. Within the instructional setting, as well as in the context of teacher-administrator relations, it is futile to repeat the ineffective practices of the past in the hope that enthusiastic rededication to what has not worked will promote the desired ends of the present. Increasing the number of sentences to be diagrammed has not produced more effective writers and speakers of the vernacular. An alternative paradigm to the usual presentation of ourselves, our cause, our purpose and content is a first priority.

The emergence of alternatives is frequently seen as a criticism, a rejection of all that preceded it, as if, as Plato said, knowledge exists waiting to be recalled, and we, given the weakness of the human state, did not put our best efforts into the recall process. An acceptance of the Einsteinian view of the universe as a dynamic product of newly emerging phenomena should reduce some of the hostility which could grow out of the suggestion that seeking alternatives permits one to engage in a different and hopefully more productive dialectic. Before considering an alternative, let us review breifly where we have been.

Change process in the literature

The literature of the field of curriculum is replete with discussions and prescriptions centering on process–both change and instruction. The history of curriculum, of education, is a record of persons of faith and enthusiasm attempting an intervention which would further the cause of the educational institution or some particular segment of the citizenry seeking to improve its lot through the vehicle of education.

One may turn quite confidently to many of the older standard curriculum texts and find a number of points of congruence between their recommendations for change and instructional process and recommended current practice. For example, Smith, Stanley, and Shores (11) provide the reader with a compendium of most of the models for curriculum change which emerged between the twenties and the fifties–administrative approach, "grass roots," demonstration, and action research. Employing the techniques of social engineering and some of the thinking of Kurt Lewin, these writers proposed an approach which they hoped would eliminate the weaknesses of previously employed methods and permit the educator to become an effective change agent in his or her classroom and community.

Anderson (1) provides a splendid analysis of the group dynamics approach to curriculum development. His analysis of group process and group member role provides schema for the pursuit of curriculum development addressed as a human relations problem. Many curriculum workers still utilize some of the processes recommended by Anderson.

Max Weber's analysis of bureaucratic rationale, structure, and function, as well as the role of the charismatic leader in the development of the change process provided focus to much of the curriculum writing prior to as well as in the 1970s. Much attention has been paid directly to the school as a bureaucratic institution, as well as to the social and political realities within the educational institution and the community. Brubaker and Nelson (3) in their book, *Creative Survival in Educational Bureaucracies,* provide a well-stated exposition of bureaucratic structure as it functions in schools, focusing on understanding educational organizations, decision making, and "how to survive creatively in educational organizations, and in turn to change them." A study of power and authority, real and titular, is frequently treated within the context of the bureaucratic structure and/or as a part of the social-political community with which educators must deal. Tye and Novotney's (12) *Schools in Transition: The Practitioner as Change Agent* treats change strategies as they relate to the social-political context most thoroughly.

Zais (13) in his chapter titled "Developing Foreign Languages Curriculum in the Total School Setting: The Macro-Picture" treats the topics of the school as a bureaucracy as well as the bureaucracy and the foreign language teacher–treatments incorporating the key elements in a bureaucratic-socio-political analysis of functioning of the school. His discussion of those factors which produce a system closed to inquiry and thought is a helpful addition to the literature which examines avenues to curriculum change.

In brief then, since its emergence as an area of specialization, curriculum workers have produced a voluminous and mostly readable body of literature dealing with the many facets of curriculum development and change. Some of the writing is descriptive in nature discussing the many elements subject to examination in the change process. In addition, much curriculum writing is prescriptive in nature, suggesting specific strategies to be employed in a curriculum project. Highlighted in almost all of this writing are problems related to parents and community. There is no need here, then, to describe already overworked processes.

Points of agreement

If one couples one's own classroom teaching experience with a perusal of the curriculum-change literature one cannot help but be struck with some common threads in the proposals.

1 No matter how the scheme for curriculum change is devised or its philosophic or psychological base developed, there emerges a consistent reliance on *committees*–grade level, departmental, school-wide, system-wide, citizen advisory, statewide and region-wide.

2 The vehicle for curriculum change, when it is defined as content change, program installation, creation of new roles for teachers, administrators, and parents is that of the *training session or workshop.*

3 All approaches to curriculum change either within a school or through the utilization of external agencies–federal government, state, special interest groups–rely on the premise that the *logical exposition* of the change agent's point of view will produce a change in his or her audience's thinking and, hence, behavior.

The committee system

An error in judgment that has consistently plagued curriculum workers is the assumption that any adult with "good motives" can function effectively within a committee system. Productive committee and small-group activity requires a set of skills best acquired with a degree of consciousness under the tutelage of a skilled group leader. Even more critical than the communication and interpersonal skills required by group participants is a wholehearted commitment to the task at hand. No matter how great the skill, lack of "heart" has defeated many a noble goal before it was ever addressed. As Pritzkau (8) points out:

> A mistake often made by administrators and other staff members of a school system is the launching of a system-wide curriculum improvement program out of context with the level of classroom practice. The sudden impact and overwhelming nature of the procedure has a devastating effect on the perspective which teachers entertain relative to instruction. The effect is further accentuated by the oft-indulged-in practice of setting up committee machinery to facilitate action on curriculum improvement. This may tend to create a frantic response which culminates in the decision to "get something ready for them." Under this condition, thinking is not on a high level relationship to real learning because the emphasis is on "getting something done." This may eventuate into a "ground-out" document so as to have "something to show" as evidence of industrious application of the participants. What is hailed as an accomplishment by the instigators of the curriculum improvement program may not be an accomplishment at all (pp. 5-6).

Committee functioning assumes that the product of committee deliberation is bound to be superior to the product of the thought of any one committee member. Pritzkau (8) continues,

> Furthermore, it cannot be logically assumed that members participating on the committee level will come out with more workable ideas of high quality than individuals examining ideas together informally but intensively at the classroom level and in the classroom context . . . Rather than becoming a body which related its efforts to the realization of considered goals of teaching, the steering or coordinating committee may assume a restrictive role in curriculum improvement. In other words, if a "steering" committee takes its label literally, the results may be a promulgation of unrealistic meanings (pp. 6-7).

The representative democratic framework with its attendant committee structure is a most familiar apparatus. Teacher and citizen cynicism growing out of the repeated experience of abuse of the committee has served to dull the effectiveness of the strategy. The most effective process seems to be operative in those settings where participants are emotionally and intellectually committed to their goal. The power and resultant action generated by parents of children in special education programs and those seeking admission for children to those programs is a splendid example of local, regional, state, and national committees working to effect legislative change, and, hence, curriculum change.

Those representing the cause of education for handicapped have emerged as one of the most potent forces in contemporary American education. Teachers, intellectually and spiritually abused by those who have manipulated committees to their own ends, have turned to the process of collective negotiations to achieve their goals. Citizens and school committees might well rethink their approaches to negotiation in that light.

Teacher training and inservice workshops

"Teacher training sessions and inservice workshops" have emerged as the primary vehicle for influencing teacher behavior and, thereby, curriculum change. The offering of a teacher "training session or workshop" appears to be an exceedingly straightforward approach to the development of curriculum change. Not so! The workshop's existence depends upon a network of complex decision-making responses to pressure groups, political rationales, intra-institutional conflicts as well as decisions related to economic support and academic credit. On some occasions teacher "training sessions" and workshops supported by a school system and/or state or federal agency are structured to permit teacher or teacher-organization planning. Even such a seemingly open arrangement may be constrained by special interest groups when the adoption of an "approved position" relative to content, procedure, and staff is required. Further, should a "training or workshop" experience be limited to sources which are "approved" or admit only those ideas which are familiar and, therefore, approved or acceptable, it hardly seems worth the effort of bringing the "faithful" together.

Frequently the human dignity of workshop and training session participants is affronted by sessions which develop as a mechanism for the proselytizing of a selected instructional approach approved by the status leaders but outside the experience of the participants. The discussion above is not intended as a criticism of the intellectual and personal integrity of educators but rather as a direct criticism of those who seek to manipulate teachers and, hence, the quality of the educational experience of youth for their own personal, political, or economic gain.

Logical exposition

Participation in the Western and the emergent global tradition requires a respect for, if not employment of, the rational qualities of humans. How else can one deal with the problem of human intercourse within our existing academic tradition? How do educators, traditionally tied to the development and expansion of the capacities of the human intellect, deal with the complexities of the second half of the twentieth century? The approaches to curriculum development embodied in the preceding sections rely on the assumption that man's rational qualities will lead to the "truth" or at least to a "solution." That, if we as educators and concerned citizens but describe our rationally developed arguments, both the uninformed and the ill-informed will understand our logic and the efficacy of our proposals. Is it too strong a statement to say, "logic has not proved to be a safe refuge for those of good or even rational intent?" In the Western intellectual tradition, the history of mind, and the development of the culture are tied to the development of the Platonic and Aristotelian tradition.

The emergence of consciousness as described by Jaynes (7) and the emergence of rationality as described by Aristotle lead Western Twentieth-century man to a paradigm of thought worn out by the dynamics of this century. Further, reliance on the Aristotelian tradition has led to a neglect of ways of knowing via the right hemisphere of the brain. When Aristotle wears out, where does one turn? Where does the educator, the language teacher turn, when the traditional mode of thought and argumentation fails? When did you last attempt through an adroit use of rationality to convince a parent, spouse, child, or relative of the correctness of a position? Given the complexities attendant upon this very basic process, how does one convince the members of the educational institution–of the administrative bureaucracy, of the local citizenry, of the state and local government–of the priority of second-language education? Not by logic, not by mechanistic committee structures, not by "training and workshop." Let a new paradigm be tested.

An alternative paradigm

To suggest a new paradigm is not to suggest a new system, method, or formula requiring handbooks and training sessions. What is suggested here is a need to restructure familiar patterns of thought, expectations, and behavior as a preliminary to processing and extending the familiar in a way which will permit us to begin again when addressing the problem of furthering the cause of langage instruction. The cynicism with which many approach the task of acquiring financial support and endorsement, program development, and the improvement of classroom instruction frequently grows out of a sense of being entrapped in an endless cycle of activity that does not produce a sustained effect. Hence, it behooves one to stand back from the situation and attempt to develop an alternative conception of the nature of the task and the process about to be undertaken. A point of consensus for this undertaking is that what has been done in the past has failed to sustain a constituency for present and future undertakings, most particularly in the field of foreign language.

James Macdonald, in a presentation at a doctoral seminar at the 1979 ASCD meeting in Detroit, pointed out that the field of education is hampered in its development by the dominance of the "liberal paradigm" as the basic mode for thought and action. The "liberal paradigm," he indicates, assumes that if one presents one's case by marshalling data and logical argument, "others will see the light" and change will be effected. This point of view pervades much of our action from warning children of the dangers of soggy shoes, smokers of health perils, as well as convincing students of the value of second-language study, and state and federal officials of the value of support for educational programs. The purity of the arguments has not had much impact on the course of events. Scientists, humanists, behaviorists, and technologists attempt intervention utilizing their own modes; however, the basic problems remain. Something is not working properly.

Macdonald identified another paradigm which he labeled, "conservative." The "conservative paradigm" embodies the tragic view of life characteristic of the Greeks in which man is always conscious of his inevitable fate despite his struggle with the gods. The "liberal paradigm" is one in which man seeks to shape his own destiny through rational interventions. There is a confidence that progress will occur through the rational exposition of a point of view. Commitment to the "liberal paradigm" has produced frantic activity at all levels of the bureaucratic structure from the production of guidelines for federal and state grant proposal writing, to budgeting and evaluation systems, to the development of "teacher-proof" instructional systems. As Macdonald noted, despite all of the above, there does not seem to be a resolution of problems, and, further, there is great "suffering from severe side-effects."

Macdonald suggests then an alternative paradigm—the "dialectical paradigm" or "critical theory" for our consideration as a conceptual frame of reference within which to locate our activity. Crucial to "critical theory" as developed by Macdonald is Arendt's conception of thoughtlessness which can so easily be related to school personnel who perceive themselves as functionaries simply "following orders." Arendt's categories of mental activity—thinking, willing, and judging—are closely related to what Macdonald describes as the dialectical approach to the translation of theory into practice. The phases of the dialectical paradigm he describes are: (1) development of theory, (2) enlightenment—primarily communication process, and (3) practice. The goal of this activity is *praxis*—action with critical thought. Hence, it is suggested that a paradigm be employed which does not lay out an internally consistent rationale from which one deduces appropriate behaviors, but rather one in which individuals employ mind in an interactive process, the product of which is the development of will, judgment, and ultimately *praxis*.

Consider the dialectical paradigm as it relates to the concerns of second-language teachers as they behave with students, parents, teachers, and administrators, within the complex pattern of inter-institutional relationships.

Pritzkau's dialogic model

Pertinent to such a paradigm is the concept of dialogue as developed by Pritzkau (9).

> In dialogue man freely gives to and freely receives from the person he meets–for no other reason than that each recognizes that he is alone, separate, but able to give and receive from the other (p. 10).

If one is serious about the development of praxis through dialogue, one cannot, then, simply bide one's time during the course of the dialogue to claim a turn at speaking. The process is simultaneously interactive for both speaker and listener. Further, when a process is authentically interactive, one cannot predict outcomes with certainty as the engagement in the dialogue opens one to the possibility of being influenced in the development of thought, hence to a potential course of action.

It is not to be implied here that participants in authentic dialogue are will-o'-the-wisps bending to the influence of each person whom they encounter. The premise is that authentic dialogue gives the participants the opportunity to test their own theories through an interactive thought process–Macdonald's enlightenment stage, perhaps–resulting in action with critical thought.

Freire (4) in a chapter titled "Dialogics" in *Pedagogy of the Oppressed* tells us that

> . . . true dialogue cannot exist unless the dialoguers engage in critical thinking–thinking which discerns an indivisible solidarity between the world and men and amits of no dichotomy between them–thinking which perceives reality as process, as transformation, rather than as a static entity–thinking which does not separate itself from action, but constantly immerses itself in temporality without fear of the risks involved (pp. 80, 81).

As second-language educators seek to hold back the tide of sentiment which seems to be moving toward a diminished role for their discipline, it is futile to engage in practice which has not served well in the past.

In the past, both recent and remote, much educational practice has been closely tied to the behaviorist/technological tradition. This tradition has developed an expansive body of content grounded in research activities primarily enumerative and organizational in character. Hypotheses have been developed and practices recommended on the basis of that activity. Given the status of second-language teaching, it seems useless to pursue already well-worn paths. Yet persistent questions need to be addressed again.

How might an alternative paradigm serve second-language instruction as second-language educators participate in the educational mainstream? How might an aternative paradigm serve second-language educators as they deal with their students, develop departmental strength, relate the administrative and teaching groups within their school systems, marshal citizen support for second-language instruction, as well as capitalize on potential state and federal support?

Dialogic role of the teacher

One of the most difficult facets in any change process is the development of a role, both personal and social, which enables one to function comfortably and effectively. Praxis assumes enough confidence and flexibility within a situation and within one's self to permit thought to be translated into activity. Such a potential may result in the teacher's assuming an altered view of self, or his or her relation to students, other professionals, and citizens. In some instances, the teacher's view of self may not change; however, his or her mode of interaction with others may.

> In dialogue each individual comes to operate as a "first behaver," thus freeing other individuals to be "first behavers." In this condition, the teacher, for example, is not placed in a position of demanding behavior from others. Actually he is in a sense a beginner with inquiry into meanings, even as pupils are beginners. This suggests that one should look at and examine his own thinking with meanings rather than isolate himself as the "settled one" with knowledge (Pritzkau, 9, pp. 11, 12).

Maintaining the centrality of communication in his or her thinking, the second-language teacher might join students in their activity, not solely as a teacher, but also as a learner. The teacher by joining students in a learning activity does not reject his or her special knowledge and experience, but rather, provides an opportunity for identification and experience with the students. The traditional teacher role, as dispenser of information, guide through the maze of unknowns, when combined with that of learner provides students many possible points for interaction with the instructor. Content treated as a vehicle of communication through an interactive process may be a more productive experience as measured by students' utilization of the language than an approach which seeks to transmit a static body of content to learners without their having the opportunity to devise their own organizers for that content. The bringing together of mind with content for the purpose of developing skill and meaning is central to the instructional process. The imposition of organizers outside the experience of the learner denies the uniqueness of minds as well as complicates the instructional process. Utilization of the dialogic model as a step in the process of raising learners' consciousness of their own and alternative organizers represents an attempt to move away from the usually employed systematic approach to instruction based on a behavioristic/technological model.

Obviously, there is nothing new about students and teachers interacting with one another. The process is endemic to teaching. The element in the process that may provide a usable alternative is that of the second-language teachers' functioning as other learners with students in developing content, experience, and wisdom. The focus becomes that of mutual productivity rather than that of one individual attempting to shape another. The development of genuine dialogue between teacher and students as well as among students through the vehicle of the second language may portend the development of an alternative instructional model.

It has been thought that language laboratories would provide another type of productive interaction. Frequently, however, the materials used in language laboratories represent an organization of content that predates the development of the language laboratory approach so that the teacher must guard against being caught up by method which simply maintains a facade of having reexamined instructional problems.

Teachers are required, then, to perform at a professional level in bringing to bear knowledge of content and process in an effective relationship with the great diversity in the character of students, teachers, and setting. The end of all that expenditure of energy and resources is the development of second-language skills in students. Students who function effectively in a second language are the most potent force in the school and the community for the support of second-language instruction.

As Professor Raymond W. Houghton of Rhode Island College has been heard to say:

> Imagine the impact of a school sending forth hordes of facile second language speakers descending on the community with the force of Babel!

School organization

The field of education encompasses a large body of literature dealing with school and school system organization. Much of this literature focuses on problems related to the units within the organization and their effective functioning, process for improvement of instruction, faculty morale, public relations, and public response to quality of instruction. These questions have been raised since before the turn of the century. The frame of reference of each of these writers reflects the state of education, the social sciences, and the potential climate of the era in which the paper was written. Writing about education is a useful indicator of the ideas in vogue at a specific time relating to social organization, theories of change, the decision-making process, and authority.

The school has consistently provided researchs and practitioners with a rich field for the study of human relations, group process, and administrative and leadership styles. *The Dynamics of Planned Educational Change* (6), edited by Herriott and Gross, is a good example of recently published volumes which deal in depth with these issues. An attempt to give the reader an understanding of the nature of the process and the management of educational change is made. The text utilizes a case study approach so that the reader will become acquainted with some of the factors in the process which facilitate and retard change.

A major portion of the Herriott and Gross text deals with case studies of school systems working with projects funded at the federal level. Tye and Novotney in *Schools in Transition: The Practitioner as Change Agent* focus on the practitioner and the single school unit as the key elements in the educational change process. The hypothesis of this text is that "lasting educational change will come only when practitioners see themselves as change agents." (12, p. 2). These are but two of more than an ample number of sources which can provide guidance to educators.

The emergence of collective negotiations as a vehicle for ordering the relationships among education personnel has served to render ineffective what had formerly been viewed as standard patterns of school operation, and, particularly, those dealing with interrelationships of teachers, and teachers and administrators within an individual school unit or department. As second-language teachers continue to examine their status within the school structure and undertake activities to solidify and strengthen their base of support, the negotiated contract sets the "ground" for whatever action is undertaken.

It has been suggested that teachers should become masters of group dynamics. Frequently such a proposal rests on the assumption that it is possible to guide groups through appropriate interventions to some predetermined end. Group dynamics frequently has been distorted into group manipulation. On many occasions a turning toward the varied strategies of group process represent the adoption of alternate routes to a time-worn end–influencing others to realize the "rightness" of one's own position. Straightforward rational discourse is abandoned for skillfully managed group process. The "liberal" paradigm remains in place with the logic removed.

Carefully devised strategies for influencing others break down for many reasons. Sometimes important elements in a setting are overlooked; the pace of the activity might be inappropriate; those to be affected may, because of previous experience, have grown cynical toward alternative arrangements and thought; or perhaps the individuals involved may have grown bored with overexposure to the process. It may even be, that on some occasions, the proposal is not a good one.

The teacher in curriculum terrain

It is difficult for second-language teachers to accept a message which recommends examination of basic assumptions when the pressures within our own institutions demand instant action to preserve educational "turf"–that is, jobs, class enrollments, educational resources, self-esteem, and academic respectability. To burst upon the educational scene with a flurry of activity without examining previously cited questions is simply to expend energy in the acting out of time-worn ritual.

The terrain included in questions related to goals frequently encompasses such elements as the character of the student population, parental expectations for students, available educational resources, competition among faculty groups for institutional power and status, and economic resources. A study of the interrelationships of these elements may lead to the development of a strategy for intervention. As rational and thoughtful as such an approach may have been, second-language teachers recognize that they and their area of specialization have been bypassed by their supporting institutions. Certainly, the thousands of system-wide and departmental curriculum guides that have been produced at an enormous cost of teacher time and energy testify to attempts of teachers to respond to the terrain in which they must function. The statements of "philosophy of second language teaching" which are dutifully included in these publications set out the goals derived by examining the elements under consideration. The goals typically indicate second-language teachers' perception of a to-be-shaped end-product. A flaw, then, in previously employed approaches to the development of second-language instruction is the failure to include the teacher himself or herself as an element in the terrain under examination.

The thinking which supports the proposition that in an effective instructional setting the teacher must participate with students as the "first learner," also supports the proposition that the teacher, in order to provide validity to the operational base, must be included as a major question in the study of the curriculum terrain.

As Pritzkau (9) notes, the nature of the organization of the school tends to separate the individual from involvement with the world. The individual thus becomes encapsulated by the school's regularities and out of touch with meanings inherent in the surrounding environment. Pritzkau continues:

> As individuals put themselves into question they open themselves to the forces which are clamoring for entrance into the conditions for inquiry. Actually, the impinging forces will tend to become the conditions and must be part of the concern of every individual. Individuals as they are involved with the conditions, become the human antennae for the messages which are multiple and real (p. 142).

Some of the questions appropriate to be raised at this juncture are the following:

a What is my thinking about the function of second-language facility? Is facility in a second language a symbol of academic achievement, cultural status? Is second language primarily a transmitter of cultural tradition? A vehicle of communication among people?

b Why am I a teacher of second language and not of some other area of specialization? How does my personal history affect my interaction with my students?

c What is my perception of the relationship of myself to fellow second-language teachers, other colleagues, administrators, and state department personnel? Do these relationships permit integration of goals and activities? Is the relationship one of competition for educational "turf"?

d Which students should second-language teachers serve—those who most effectively reinforce our image of ourselves? those who require second-language credentials for further education? students seeking to expand their employment credentials? all students?

e What is the relationship between "academic talent" as measured by standardized tests of aptitude and achievement to students learning a second language? Does the ability to learn a first language presume the ability to learn a second?

f Does second-language teaching have a role in addressing contemporary concerns relating to ethnicity and cultural concerns? Would a response to interest in ethnicity result in further fracturing of society? Should second-language teaching find its base in an academic ground, social ground, or a combination?

It is at the point at which second-language teachers engage in dialogue with themselves about some of the questions raised in the preceding paragraphs as well as extensions of these questions and others not alluded to here that they might move to participation in the dialectical paradigm with one another. Goals and degree of seriousness about the task at hand, then, may be assessed and the teacher, in turn, may be given fair consideration in planning related to projected curriculum planning.

Dealing with the encumbrances of the past

The proposed route will not be a satisfying one to those who believe that the cause of foreign language teaching is all but lost and that the desperate situation calls for immediate and forthright action. Choices between the "long range" and "short range" are not simple ones. In America, second-language teachers have had centuries with which to deal with these choices, as the history of language teaching is certainly venerable. Even in Benjamin Franklin's time the academy in Philadelphia was caught in controversy arising from tensions between teachers of the vernacular and of second language. Immediate and strong action is demanded by our time. Let there be tried thought rather than reflex, however; for without thought, the development of theory, dialogue, and praxis are out of reach. One must not again abandon oneself to a "band-aid" mentality for survival.

Recent interest in second-language teaching at the national level is truly encouraging if not surprising in light of the diminishing enrollments in secondary and college language classes. It may be that second-language teachers will once again have some national support for their programs. In view of the existing situation as well as the possibility of increased support for instruction, the realities of current circumstances should be confronted. An overwhelming reality is that of the widespread disillusionment of consumers with second-language programs as they are presently constituted. In fact, it is this disillusionment of citizens, students, and professionals at all levels of the social and educational structure that is of prime concern.

Again, second-language teachers share this disillusionment with others. The phenomenon is widespread throughout all levels and phases of education. The expensive and complex education bureaucracy has not lived up to public expectation.

For second-language teachers, the history of public support has been a long one. Most recently the resources put at the disposal of second-language teachers through the National Defense Education Act and the Elementary and Secondary School Education Act represented broad political and economic support as well as status and approval. Federal funds supporting the development of language laboratories, national curriculum development projects, materials development workshops, and teacher training workshops provided enviable resources for the establishment of the primacy of second-language teaching. Despite this investment of time, energy, and funding, citizens and parents identify themselves and their children as persons without second-language facility after sometimes devoting as much as one-fifth of their secondary school study to a second language over a three-to four-year program. The recapturing of public confidence is a long-range undertaking involving direct contact with potential supporters in the community, development of understanding of purpose and process among fellow educators, and the acquisition and wise use of state and federal resources. It has been rightly said that, "You can't go home again." This is surely the case with second-language instruction. Language educators have been placed in the position of having to seek ways of establishing a base of trust in the community that may not have been employed in the past.

One of the best ways of reestablishing confidence with citizens is through cooperative efforts directed toward goals which serve their interests as well as opening school activities to them. Listed below are some suggestions that might serve citizens' interests.

- Programs could be offered through the local adult education apparatus that would serve the interests of the community. The study of languages and cultures other than French, Spanish, and German responsive to the ethnic identification of the local population would be appropriate.
- Language and culture courses geared to the needs of the casual overseas tourist would be helpful.
- Language courses and crosscultural training to serve the needs of those engaged in business as they address the needs of non-English-speaking persons would provide high visibility for second-language programs. Personnel including store clerks, service personnel in restaurants, public transportation companies, hospitals, and hotels are good candidates for such programs.
- The organization of occupational "fairs" open to the public as well as to school children could demonstrate the link between second-language facility and employment.
- Opening of second-language classrooms to visitation by the public and by other teachers would heighten the visibility of second-language programs.

- Developing special activities–dinners, luncheons, holiday festivities–conducted in a second language would provide parents, school faculty and staff an opportunity to observe the product of second-language instructional programs.

It is unrealistic to expect that great numbers of parents and citizens would converge upon the school at the first invitation. Initially, it probably would be quite difficult to bring even two or three persons together. The problem must be faced directly within a long-range context.

Since it is most unlikely that anyone would be interested in carrying the concerns of second-language teachers to the public other than second-language teachers themselves, the message, to be effective, must be carried by personal contact. The usual public relations bulletins are not sufficient to the task. Language educators must capitalize on their greatest resource, the capacity for influencing adults through children or in a one-to-one encounter.

An interesting departure from the usual approach to educational public relations was initiated by The American Council on the Teaching of Foreign Languages through its 1979 Foreign Language Day Activities and most particularly with the series of town meetings it established in conjunction with Foreign Language Day. The focus of the program was that of highlighting the work of the President's Commission on Foreign Language and International Studies and to encourage people interested in these studies to make recommendations to the commission. The organization of the town meetings was such that citizens, legislators, professional educators, parents, students, and members of the press had the opportunity to address publicly some of the key issues related to the teaching of foreign language and international studies with the confidence that the recommendations growing out of these discussions would reach the commission for action. Expansion of the program may well represent a step toward garnering sorely needed public support.

Unfortunately, second-language teachers cannot turn to their fellow teachers in other academic areas for support. Disillusionment with second-language teaching can be found among colleagues in other special fields. Teachers anticipating travel to sections of the United States where second languages are commonly spoken or to non-English-speaking areas beyond these borders could be invited to participate in some of the existing school classes so that they might acquire some language skill. As a result of the contact, they may develop some enthusiasm for second-language programs. Inviting colleagues into the classroom for study or simply a visit could develop some understanding and interest that might lay the basis for dialogue.

An approach to the development of interest both in students as well as fellow teachers and citizens in the study of second language might be that of teaching several languages to the same group. By the end of the experience, the expectation would be that the participants would have some feeling for and sense of the structure of several languages. The program might not be too different from that of junior high school students during the early period of the development of junior high schools in the 1930s and 1940s when they operated on the assumption that students need to undergo a variety of exploratory experiences before making a long-range commitment to an area of study. The New Canadians program developed by the Board of Education of the City of Toronto during the first half of the 1970s provides a viable approach to dealing with many languages within one setting.

Before a program of grant proposal writing, lobbying for funding, curriculum development, or inservice workshops is undertaken, two factors must be addressed—examination of the teacher as part of the problem of second-language instruction and the establishment of a positive climate for change by confronting the problem of disillusionment with second-language instruction. After thought, theory development, and dialogue, action will be appropriate. If action is taken without the required preliminaries, second-language teaching will remain moribund.

Recognizing that existing state-wide and nation-wide bureaucratic structures must be dealt with in order to achieve a goal of support for second-language instruction, one is drawn into conflict by the need to respond to the demands of the institution as well as to deal authentically with the issues which will ultimately direct our course of action. One cannot survive as an educator in the twentieth century without dealing directly with these structures. To exit from the bureaucracy is to abandon any hope of affecting it, as bureaucracies are highly adept at neutralizing those who would change them. The extinction of bureaucracy is like that of the dinosaur. Both, through their own growth and resultant inability to support their own weight, suffocate. If second-language teachers are to have a forum and to have access to students, they must survive, at least minimally, with the bureaucratically organized education institution.

A primary concern, therefore, becomes that of seeking a balance between the amount of energy expended to survive within the structure, energy frequently sapped by tasks unrelated to one's function as teacher, and energy expended on the task of furthering the cause and quality of second-language instruction. This conflict is particularly enervating because of the dual role into which the teacher is forced when approaching the centrality of the task of teacher from the operational mode of the dialectical paradigm within a traditional bureaucratic context.

Available helping structures

Hence, second-language teachers should not ignore those useful structures and supports provided by state and federal organizations. The technique that one could employ when addressing these sectors might be that of the dialectical paradigm. As one lobbies with state and federal legislators and functions with groups and agents of special interest groups in the public sector, the advantage accrued from thought and examination of self, profession, and public climate provides content for discussion focusing on the social and political realities.

The money, materials, and inservice programs supported by federal and state funding are critical to the further development of the field. Second-language teachers through their professional organizations, second-language groups, and collective bargaining units should seek to influence the development of the types of grants as well as the guidelines by which grant proposals will be written. This proposal requires the investment of staff time and money of the professional organizations in lobbying members of state legislatures, staff of state departments of education, members of appropriate congressional committees, and their own congressional delegations. Consciousness raising of legislators and state and federal education staffs and officials should be undertaken simultaneously. The content of the dialogue with these officials should represent thought which is the product of previously suggested examination of the status quo and the resultant suggested praxis. Legislators cannot be expected to work for the enactment of legislation without the support of a constituency. Professional groups may have to employ consultants to work with them in influencing lawmakers. One group, The Joint National Committee for Languages, has already moved in this direction by funding the establishment of a liaison office in Washington.

It would be a serious mistake for the professional groups to rely on wistful letters to legislators asking for federal funding for second-language programs. Why not send a language teacher to spend time with a congressman or senator who has a particular foreign interest or constituency and offer him or her a tight effective experience in learning that language or, minimally, about the culture. Success in such a venture would become enormously influential, much more so than thousands of lobbying letters. Acting from a strong base of citizen support demonstrated by letters, advertising, and fund raising, lobbyists would be able to convey citizen concern for second-language instructional programs as has been the case in the fields of special education and reading.

It is not enought to rely on the force of such groups as the President's Commission on Foreign Language and International Studies. As concern for language skills and the study of other cultures grows at the level of the commission, support must be generated among professional groups and at the school district level if broad-based programs are to be forthcoming.

Success in laying the foundation for action could result in second-language teachers' having the opportunity to capitalize on resources provided by grants and projects to accomplish their own ends. At best, resolution of the conflict between desirable operational schemes and institutional setting requires a high level of awareness, sense of timing, and humor.

Rest assured. People will be using language whether or not we teachers and administrators survive as individuals or collectives. People spoke before there were teachers. They speak often in spite of us, now that there are teachers. They will speak when there are no more teachers. They will communicate.

We must be willing to ask, have we helped? Are we helping? Can we help? Do we want to help? How can we help?

These are the questions we must be asking if we are to justify maintenance, let alone growth, of second-language instruction. If we do not, we are merely responding to the territorial imperative. We are protecting turf.

Ain't nobody gonna buy?

We gotta get our act together.

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